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## JOHN HEYWOOD'S

# ATLAS AND GEOGRAPHY

OF THE

## BRITISH EMPIRE.

BY

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\* Atlas 1010, 4. 1879

#### PREFACE.

The present work has been prepared with the object of meeting the requirements of advanced pupils studying the geography of the British Empire.

It is more especially adapted for the use of pupil-teachers of the second year, for whom the maps incorporated in the book will be of great advantage as aids to map-drawing.

The work has been prepared from the most trustworthy sources, and, wherever possible, the statistics given in the various Government Returns have been used.

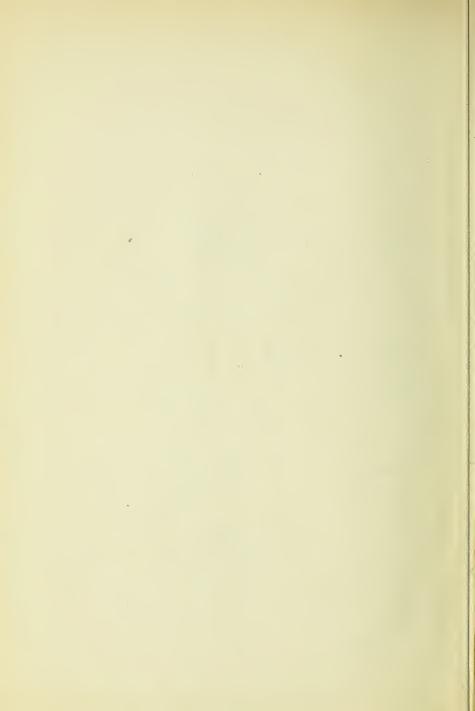
Throughout, the wish to be concise, yet complete and correct, has been the chief aim, and the author firmly believes that the information may be fully relied on.

Having experienced the difficulties which pupil-teachers and others find in using several of the best geographies, from their want of understanding the language used, great care has been taken to select such words only as are within the comprehension of the average Sixth Standard children.



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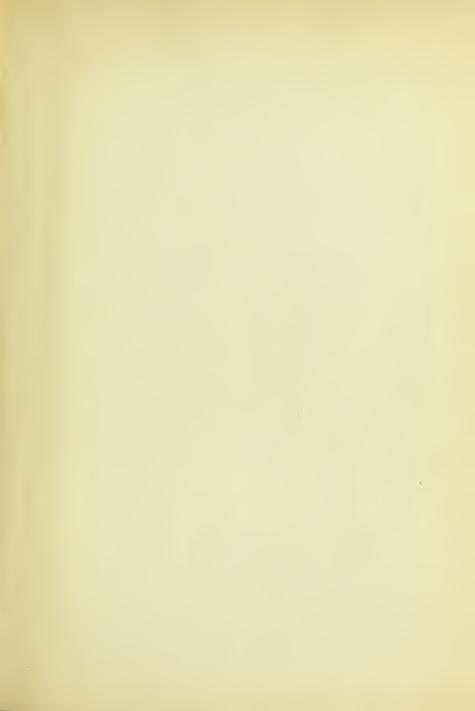
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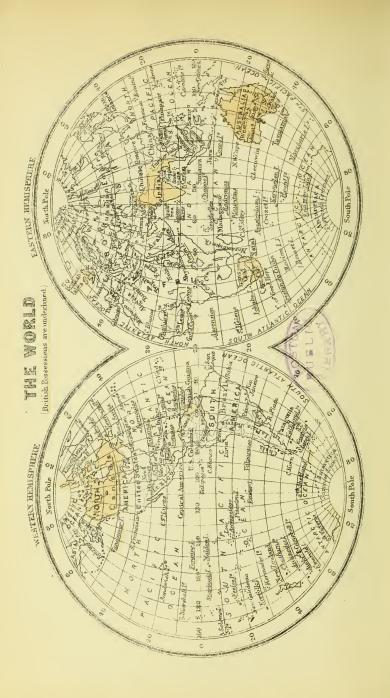


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## THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE, in addition to the British Isles, includes all countries owning the Queen of England as their sovereign. The latter are found in every continent, and in each are so important that they may be said to naturally arrange themselves into divisions corresponding to those continents.

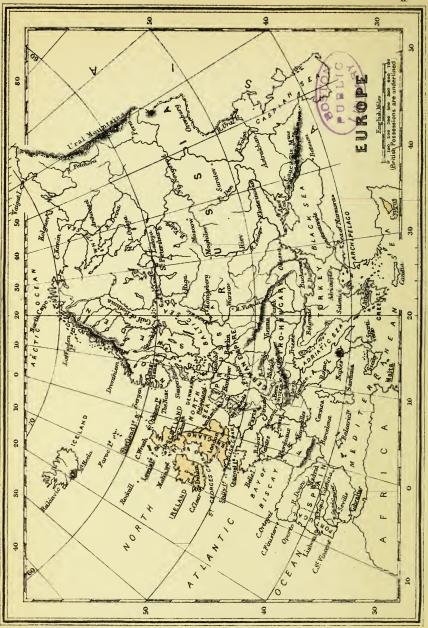
These parts of the empire consist of two distinct classes—(1) such as are colonised by the English people, and properly called colonies; and (2) such as are peopled chiefly by their original occupants, and termed dependencies. At present these terms have

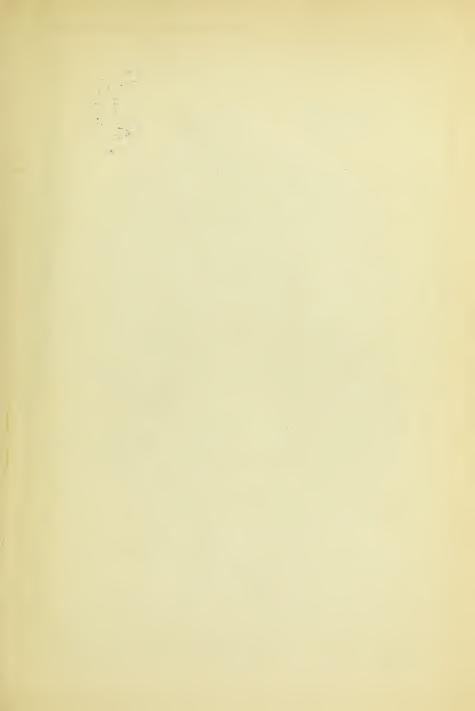
lost their special significance, and the whole are often spoken of as colonies or possessions.

The Table below shows the names of the portions of this great empire, with the divisions in which they are situated, together with area and estimated population:—

Division.	Name of Country.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.
Europe	BRITISH ISLANDS	$   \begin{array}{c}     121,115 \\     \hline     2\frac{1}{4} \\     143   \end{array} $	33,000,000 3,000 25,432 156,875
<b>A</b> sia	Aden. Perim Islands Ceylon India. Straits Settlements Hong Kong Labuan Cyprus	45	22,000 50 2,405,287 239,938,695 310,000 124,198 5,000 120,000
Africa	GOLD COAST GAMBIA SIERRA LEONE CAPE COLONY NATAL TRANSVAAL ASCENSION. ST. HELENA MAURITIUS	16,620 21 468 209,000 17,800 114,360 35 47 739	$\begin{array}{c} 520,000 \\ 14,200 \\ 37,080 \\ 848,600 \\ 326,957 \\ 300,000 \\ 200 \\ 6,241 \\ 344,602 \end{array}$
America	DOMINION OF CANADA	12,707 13,500 100,000	3,727,000 161,400 1,100,000 24,700 200,000 1,153
Australasia	AUSTRALIA TASMANIA NEW ZEALAND FIJI AND OTHER ISLANDS	26,215 106,260	2,500,000 104,573 399,075 1,000,000









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AND 18, PATERNOSTER SQUARE, LONDON, E. C.

#### PART I.

## BRITISH EMPIRE IN EUROPE.

#### BRITISH ISLANDS.

These Islands are situated on the north-west of Europe, from which they are separated by two channels—the North Sea, washing their east coast, and on the south a channel known as the English Channel. They consist of two large islands and several small ones. The larger island—known as Great Britain—has an area of nearly 90,000 square miles, and it forms the countries England and Wales, and Scotland. The other island is situated about 40 miles west of Great Britain, and has an area of 31,000 square miles, being known as Ireland.

Each of these countries in earlier periods formed distinct kingdoms, ruled by independent sovereigns. As early as 1170 the English commenced the conquest of Ireland, but, although they claimed the supremacy, Ireland can scarcely be said to have been conquered until the fall of Limerick, in the year 1691. Wales was annexed to England by Edward III., although it was nominally a portion of the English kingdom previously; whilst Scotland was to some extent united with England in the year 1603, when James VI.

of Scotland became James I. of England.

In 1707 an Act was passed which formally declared the union of Scotland with England, the two countries being governed by one King and one Parliament. This might also be said to be the commencement of the empire, as although a few places were in the possession of England previously, they were few and comparatively unimportant. Within 60 years their number had greatly increased, and in 1801, when the Parliaments of Ireland and Great Britain were united, the British Empire had become one of the largest in the world. Thus the British Islands are, as it were, the foundation of the empire; and it is her sons who have colonised, conquered, or otherwise acquired those lands which form it.

Religion.—England and Wales and Scotland are decidedly Protestant countries, as only two millions of their population are estimated as Roman Catholics. In Ireland the majority are Roman Catholics. The State acknowledges the Episcopal Church, which is known as the Established Church, in England, and the Presbyterian for Scotland. Ireland has now no State Church. Every other religious opinion is tolerated, and its professors receive equal rights as citizens. The number of sects is very great, there being

154 registered, whilst many minor sects are unregistered.

The Church of England maintains two archbishops and thirty-two bishops. Their sees are the archbishoprics of Canterbury and York, and the bishoprics of Bangor, Bath and Wells, Carlisle, Chester, Chichester, Durham, Ely, Exeter, Gloucester and Bristol, Hereford, Lichfield, Liverpool, Lincoln, Llandaff, London, Manchester, Newcastle, Norwich, Oxford, Peterborough, Ripon, Rochester, Southwell, St. Albans, St. Asaph, St. David's, Salisbury, Sodor and Man, Truro, Wakefield, Winchester, and Worcester. In addition to these every parish is supplied with resident clergyman, occasionally helped by curates; the whole number being about 23,000 permanent religious instructors. The Dissenting bodies have likewise a large body of ministers—some being pastors, but the majority local preachers.

The Scottish Established Church maintains 1,587 ministers, who minister to about one-half of the population. The Episcopal Church has 215 clergy, and the Scottish Free

Church 1,091.

Ireland is ministered to by 12 bishops and about 1,000 clergy of the Established Church, whilst almost every parish has a priest of the Roman Catholic faith attached to it. The total number of Roman Catholics in the British Islands does not probably reach six millions.

Government.—The British Islands have a constitutional form of government. The Sovereign is at the head of affairs, but is assisted by two Houses of Parliament. The power of the Sovereign is very limited, and that which still remains has to be vested in a body of men called Ministers, who are responsible to Parliament for their actions. The Houses of Parliament consist of the House of Lords and the House of Commons.

The English members of the House of Peers hold their office by the right of their position, it being hereditary. The number of English peers who have seats in this house is 457. Scotland elects 16 peers to each Parliament, whilst Ireland elects 28 peers for life. Several of the English peers are really Scotch or Irish peers with English titles.

The members of the House of Commons are the representatives of the people. They have to seek re-election at least once in seven years. The voting is now carried on by ballot to prevent any coercion being used. Bribery is not allowed; the member practising it loses his seat. The counties return a certain number of members who are termed the "county members," and they are generally devoted to the agricultural interests of the country. Some towns also return from one to three members according to their size, these members being distinguished as borough members. By this means a real representation of the people is obtained, and their interests guarded. The English members of the House are 493, the Irish 105, and the Scotch 60. The whole House numbers 658. Owing to the total or partial disfranchisement of places, the number at present is 651.

Thus in the Government there are the representatives of the Crown, the landed aristocracy, and the people. The Crown through Ministers holds the executive power, whilst the Houses of Parliament have the legislative. All money grants must be

obtained from the House of Commons.

The income from all sources amounted in 1878 to £81,642,400, whilst the expenditure was £83,292,584. This enormous income is devoted to paying the interest on and reducing the national debt that amounted in March, 1878, to £777,781,596, maintaining an army, a navy, educational grants, and the administration of justice, &c.

The standing army in 1878 amounted to 185,973. In addition to this there were 136,788 men in the militia, 14,830 yeomanry cavalry, and 203,212 volunteers of all arms. The annual cost of the military forces was £16,112,164. The naval forces of England during the same year amounted to 60,000, maintained at a cost of £10,978,591.

Education has during the last few years received great attention from Government, and they give annual grants to all schools satisfying the requirements of a department known as the Education Department. These grants in 1877 amounted to £3,600,000.

The laws of the British Islands are just and equitable, the people enjoying more real liberty than the inhabitants of any other land.

#### ENGLAND AND WALES.

Boundaries.—This country is formed by the southern and larger portion of the island of Great Britain. It is bounded on the north by Scotland, on the east it is separated from Europe by the German Ocean, on the south by the English Channel, whilst on the west it is washed by the Atlantic Ocean and the Irish Sea.

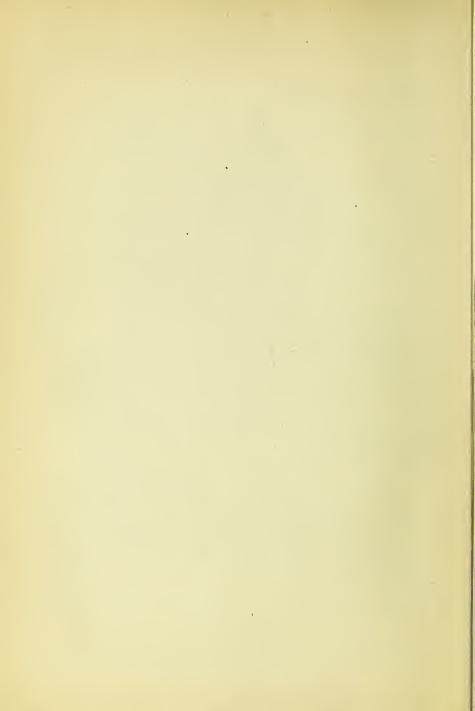
Extent.—The greatest length is that from Land's End to Berwick, a distance of 420 miles. The greatest breadth is between Land's End and the North Foreland, 320 miles. The least breadth is between Solway Firth and Berwick, being only 70 miles.

The area of England and Wales with the adjacent islands is 37,531,722 acres, which is 3643 square miles. Of these 4,734,486 acres or nearly 7,397 square miles

belong to Wales.

Coast.—England has a very extensive coast line for so small a country, it being over 2,000 miles in length. This fact is accounted for by the great irregularity of its shape. The character of the coast is also very diversified, consisting, between Berwick and the Fern Islands, of a low sandy shore; but this is followed by a series of low cliffs that reach southward, gradually becoming more prominent as far as Flamborough Head. From Flamborough Head to the Wash the coast is almost uniformly low. After passing the Wash this feature is occasionally varied by rocky cliffs until south of the





mouth of the Thames, when the coast is formed by a series of chalk cliffs, sometimes low and sometimes bold, as far as the South Foreland, where its character again changes and it becomes low and marshy. This is succeeded by the headlands and chalk cliffs near Hastings, and from thence westward the coast is chiefly level and low. From the south of Devon it is bold and rocky, and this character becomes more marked on the shores of Cornwall and Wales. The coast on both sides of the Severn is low, and it has the same character northward of Wales, only varied by the bold headlands near St. Bees Head.

Seas.—The North Sca or German Ocean lies between England and the north western countries of Europe. Its length is about 600 miles, its breadth varies from 100 to 400 miles. This sea is shallow in the south, but northward it becomes of considerable depth. Its mean depth is about 100 feet when 40 miles from the shore. The height of the tide varies considerably, being 7 feet at Yarmouth, 19 feet in the Thames, and 22 feet in the Wash.

English Channel.—This sea lies between England and France. In the eastern portion at the Straits of Dover its width is but 204 miles, and its depth 150 feet; but in its western portion it is 100 miles broad and 300 feet deep. In this sea the tide rises to the

height of 16 or 17 feet.

The Irish Sea.—Lying between the west coast of England and the eastern coast of Ireland has a length of about 280 miles, and a width varying between 20 and 130 miles. Its average depth is nearly 300 feet, and it is much deeper in the south than in the north. The tides in this sea and south of it are very high, being at Cardiff 38 feet, and at the mouth of the Bristol Avon 40 feet.

\*Divisions.—England and Wales are divided into 52 counties or shires. These may be arranged according to their situation, as Northern; North, South, and West Midland; Eastern; South-Eastern; South-Western, and Welsh counties, in the following manner:—

Northern Counties.—Northumberland, Cumberland, Westmorland, Durham, York-

shire, Lancashire.

North Midland.—Cheshire, Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, Leicestershire, Rutlandshire.

South Midland.—Northamptonshire, Huntingdonshire, Cambridgeshire, Bedfordshire, Hertfordshire, Middlesex, Buckinghamshire, Oxfordshire.

West Midland.—Gloucestershire, Monmouthshire, Herefordshire, Worcestershire, Warwickshire, Staffordshire, Shropshire.

Eastern.—Lincolnshire, Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex.

South-Eastern.—Kent, Surrey, Sussex, Hampshire, Berkshire.

South-Western.—Dorsetshire, Wiltshire, Somersetshire, Devonshire, Cornwall.

Wales.—Anglesea, Caernarvonshire, Denbighshire, Flintshire, Merionethshire, and Montgomeryshire in North Wales; Radnorshire, Cardiganshire, Pembrokeshire, Caermarthenshire, Brecknockshire, and Glamorganshire in South Wales.

Headlands.—On the East Coast: Flamborough Head and Spurn Head in Yorkshire, Lowestoft Ness in Suffolk, the Naze in Essex, North Foreland and South Foreland in Kent.

On the South Coast: Dungeness in Kent, Beachey Head and Selsea Bill in Sussex, Catherine Point and the Needles in Isle of Wight, St. Alban's Head and Portland Bill in Dorsetshire, Start Point and Bolt Head in Devonshire, and the Lizard in Cornwall.

On the West Coast: Land's End in Cornwall, Hartland Point in Devonshire, Mumble Head and Worm's Head in Glamorganshire, St. Goven's Head and St. David's Head in Pembrokeshire, Braich-y-Pwll and Great Orme's Head in Caernarvonshire, Lynas Head in Anglesea, Air Point in Flintshire, Formby Point in Lancashire, and Great Bees Head in Cumberland.

The most prominent of these capes are Great Orme's Head (673 feet high), Beachy Head (564 feet high), Bolt Head (430 feet high), South Foreland (370 feet high), Hartland Point (350 feet high).

Openings.—On the East Coast: Tees Bay, Robin Hood Bay, Bridlington Bay, River Humber, The Wash, Harwich Bay, and Mouth of the Thames.

<sup>\*</sup> The counties of England are given thus early to permit of their after use in referring to position, &c.

On the South Coast: Portsmouth Harbour, Southampton Water, Poole Bay, Weymouth Harbour, Torbay, Salcombe Harbour, Plymouth Sound, Falmouth Harbour, and

Mount's Bay.

On the West Coast: St. Ives, Padstow, Bideford, and Bridgewater Bays; Mouth of the Severn; Swansea, and Caermarthen Bays; Milford Haven; St. Bride's, and Cardigan Bays; Mouths of the Rivers Dee, Mersey, and Ribble; Morecambe Bay, and Solway Firth.

Of these the most valuable are :-The Mouth of the Thames, which is always a scene of great activity. It is a large

and long opening, and the tide runs up 69 miles from the sea. London being on the

Thames, the number of ships annually passing up the river is enormous. Portsmouth Harbour, situated in the south of Hampshire, is the finest naval harbour

in the world. It can contain with perfect safety the whole British navy.

Plymouth Sound is a magnificent harbour, having an artificial breakwater across its mouth to break the force of the waves during stormy weather. About 16 miles from Plymouth is the Eddystone Lighthouse.

Milford Haven is one of the finest natural harbours in the world. Although it is on

a coast exposed to great severity, this harbour is always perfectly safe.

\* Islands.—On the East: Holy, Farn, and Coquet Islands (east of Northumberland), Mersey Isle, Foulness, Sheppey, Thanet.

On the South: Isle of Wight, Channel and Scilly Islands.

On the West: Lundy and Bardsey Islands, Holyhead and Anglesea, Walney Island, and the Isle of Man.

Mountains.—The mountains of England are all found on the western side of a line joining the Humber and the Exe. These mountains naturally divide themselves into four groups, known as the Pennine Range, Cumbrian Group, Cambrian Group, and the

Devonian Range.

The Pennine Range stretches from the Scottish border southward to the vale of the Trent, occupying the western borders of the counties of Northumberland, Durham, and Yorkshire, and the eastern borders of Cumberland, Westmorland, and Lancashire. The highest peaks in this range are Crossfell (2,900 feet), Whernside (2,414 feet), Ingleborough (2,370 feet), and Pen-y-gant (2,273 feet).

The Cumbrian Group occupies the greater portion of Westmorland and Cumberland as well as Furness. These hills are higher than the Pennine Range, and a great deal bolder, exceeding all others in England in the height of some of the peaks. The highest peaks are Scafell (3,200 feet), Helvellyn (3,118 feet), and Skiddaw (3,022 feet), besides

the hills of Coniston and Cockermouth.

The Cambrian Group is situated in Wales around the lower part of the Severn, in Caernarvonshire, Merionethshire, Montgomeryshire, and Cardiganshire. No English mountains attain the height of this series, which is neither a single range nor a succession of chains, being rather a series of high mountain ranges, occasionally forming large tablelands. The highest summit in Wales is Snowdon (3,570 feet). Other peaks are Cader Idris (2,929 feet), Plynlimmon (2,469 feet), and Aran Mowddy (2,970 feet). Several branches of these mountains spread through South Wales, the highest peak being Brecknock Beacon (2,910 feet).

The Devonian Range spreads through the counties of Somerset, Devon, and Cornwall. Although the height attained is not so great, these hills have a very bleak and wild aspect. The chief heights are Yestor (2,050 feet), Amicombe Hill (2,000 feet), Cawsand Beacon

(1,792 feet), and Brown Willy, in Cornwall (1,364 feet).

Hills.—The Chiltern and East Anglian Hills, consisting of a continuous range of chalk downs, scarcely reaching 900 feet in height, occupying portions of Oxfordshire, Buckinghamshire, Bedfordshire, and Huntingdonshire; North York Moors, in the North Riding of Yorkshire; the Yorkshire and Lincolnshire Wolds, a series of chalk downs in Yorkshire and Lincolnshire; the Clee Hills, in Shropshire, rising to the height of 1,805 feet; the Malvern Hills, on the borders of Worcestershire and Herefordshire, 1,400 feet high; the Wrekin, east of Shrewsbury, which is 1,320 feet high; the Clent Hills, in the east of Worcester, which reaches 1,007 feet; the Cotswold Hills, in Gloucester-

<sup>\*</sup> A detailed account of the principal islands will be found on pages 26 and 27.

shire, which reaches 1,134 feet; North Downs, in Kent, Surrey, and Hampshire; South Downs in Sussex and Hampshire, and Salisbury Plain, in Wiltshire, all three reaching about 700 feet; Mendip Hill, in Somersetshire, 1,067 feet; Quanlock Hills, in Somersetshire, 1,262 feet; Blackdown Hills, in Somerset and Devonshire, 1,250 feet; Exmoor, in Somersetshire and North Devonshire, which reaches 1,707 feet at a peak called Dunkerry Beacon.

Rivers.—England is extremely well watered, and receives additional advantage from the majority of her rivers being navigable by barges or boats. The size of the country prevents there being any comparison with continental rivers in length or area of drainage, but they are sufficiently large and numerous to make England one of the best watered countries in the world. Nearly all the long rivers have an easterly direction, which is caused by the highest ground being situated on the west, and the country sloping eastward to the coast.

The following table shows the principal rivers of England arranged in three classes: I, those falling into the German Ocean; II, those entering the English Channel; and III,

those flowing westward into the Atlantic or Irish Sea :-

Div.	River.	Rises.	Enters the Sea.	Length	Area of Drainage.
-	Coquet Tyne Wear Tees	Near Carter Fell; Cheviots Near Peel Fell; Cheviots { Near Wilhope Haw; { Pennine South-West Durham	Tyne Mouth 1 Ten miles South of Tyne Mouth	33 73	Sq. Miles. 200 1,100 460 744
	Ouse	Yorkshire Moors Great Shunnor Fell Whernside South of Little Whernside South of Dod Fell. Pennine Range, 10 miles South-East of Pen-y-gant		150	6,000
I. }	Don Trent Witham Welland Nen Ouse Cam Yare Waveney Stour Colne Blackwater	In South Yorkshire Moorlands of Staffordshire South-West Lincolnshire West Northamptonshire West Northamptonshire South Northamptonshire Chiltern Hills Norfolk, East of the Wash South Norfolk Gog Magog Hills North of Essex North-West Essex	Humber River The Wash The Wash The Wash The Wash Yarmouth Yarmouth Harwich Harbour Colne Mouth Blackwater Mouth	180 90 70 100 160 35 55 40 27 36	3,900 1,050 700 1,050 2,960 533
	Thames Kennet Wey. Mole Darent. Medway Cherwell Thame Colne Lea Stour	Cotswold Hills South Berkshire. North-East Hampshire. North Sussex West Kent South-East Surrey North Oxfordshire Buckinghamshire West Hertfordshire West Hertfordshire North Downs, Kent		215	6,160

#### English Rivers.—Continued.

Div.	River.	Rises.	Enters the Sea.	Length	Area of Drainage
			1	Miles.	Sq. Miles.
(	Rother	The Weald, Sussex	Straits of Dover		
ĺ	Ouse				
į			Head	35	
	Arun	East Hampshire	10 miles east of Selsea		
		_	Bill	51	
	Itchen	East Hampshire	Southampton Water	27	
II.	Test		Southampton Water	35	550
11.	Avon	Wiltshire	Avon Mouth	67	666
i	Stour	South Wiltshire		64	
	Aire	Somersetshire	East Devon		
	Exe	North-west Somersetshire	Exe Mouth	58	600
	Tamar	North-east Cornwall	)		
	Plym	Dartmoor	Plymouth Sound	56	600
j	Tavy	Dartmoor	) "		
(	Torridge	North-west Devonshire	Bideford Bay	52	
i	Taw	Dartmoor	Bideford Bay	38	
	Parrett	South Somersetshire	Bridgewater Bay		560
	Avon	Mendip Hills		78	900
	Severn	Plinlimmon	)		
1	Avon	East Warwickshire	Bristol Channel	200	4,500
	Teme	East Montgomeryshire	j		· ·
	Wye	Radnorshire	Severn Mouth	148	1,650
III. {	Usk	Brecknockshire	Severn Mouth	76	7,00
111.7	Neath	Brecknockshire	Swansea Bay	20	
	Towy	East Cardiganshire	Caermarthen Bay	66	522
	Teify	Cardiganshire	Cardigan Bay	70	
	Dovey	Merionethshire	Cardigan Bay	20	
	Dee	Denbighshire	Dee Mouth	. 65	
	Mersey	Peak, Derbyshire	Mersey Mouth	70	1,706
	Ribble	Ingleborough	Ribble Mouth	61	
11	Lune	Whernside	Morecambe Bay	53	
U	Eden	South Westmorland	Solway Firth	70	916

Lakes.—The only district in England where lakes are now numerous is within the Cumbrian group of hills. These lakes, though small, are famed for the magnificence of their scenery. The chief are Windermere, Ulleswater, Derwent Water, Coniston Lake, Wast Water, Ennerdale, Buttermere, and Thirlmere. Windermere is the largest, being about ten miles long and one mile broad, depth 240ft., and elevation 134ft. Next in size is Ulleswater, eight miles long, and three-fourths of a mile broad, depth 210ft., and elevation 318ft. Formerly there were numerous lakes of little depth in the Fen district, but these have all been drained, during the last 200 years, by huge drains joining the rivers, the water being moved by powerful engines. The largest drain is called the Bedford level.

The largest lake in Wales is *Bala Lake*, four miles long and about three-quarters of a mile broad; its average depth is 40 feet. *Lake Conway* is one mile long by three-quarters broad, whilst the other lakes are the *Lakes of Llanberris*, north of Snowdon, and *Brecknock Mere* in Brecknockshire, the latter being three miles long by one mile broad, and having an average depth of only 11 feet.

Plains.—Nearly the whole of eastern and central England consists of low and level tracts, that are divided by ranges of low hills. Names are given to these districts, and they form the plains of England. The largest is York Plain, lying eastward of the Pennine Range: others are the Cumbrian Plain, north of the Cumbrian Range; the Cheshire Plain in Cheshire; the Central Plain, occupying the country between the Trent,

Severn, and Thames, on the north, west, and south; whilst the Fen District occupies the east. The Eastern Plain lies near the German Ocean, and includes the chief portion of the counties of Norfolk, Suffolk, and Essex.

Climate.—The English climate is much more temperate than that of other countries of the same latitude, on account of its insular position and the consequent modifying power of the sea. The summer heat rarely reaches 100°, whilst the average is only 64° in the south-west of England, and about 2° less elsewhere. The severest winter is experienced on the eastern coast, the average winter temperature being 36°. Thus between the highest summer average and the lowest winter average there is only a difference of 28°, whilst in Germany, in the same latitude as South England, the difference between the average heat in winter and summer is 33°.

The rainfall varies considerably, being greater in the western portion than in the eastern. The heaviest rainfall is at Snaithwaite, in Cumberland, where the annual fall averages 138 inches. The average rainfall of the whole country is about 24 inches.

The prevailing winds are from the south-west between June and December, and from the north-east from January to May. These are varied by occasional south-east and northwest winds. The south-west winds are generally moist, and consequently produce rain;

whilst the north-east are dry and piercing.

Minerals.—The mineral wealth of England has been a great means towards the elevation of that kingdom to the highest position of any country at the present time. Whilst the so-called precious metals are not to be found, she possesses inexhaustible stores of the really precious minerals—coal and iron; with large quantities of copper, lead, zinc, and salt. Each of these are individually of such importance as to indicate the occupations of the people in the counties in which they occur. The following arrangement shows where each mineral is found—dividing at the same time the coal districts into fields.

Coal Fields.—(a) Northumberland and Durham; (b) Whitehaven, in West Cumberland; (c) South Lancashire; (d) Leeds and Nottingham, in South Yorkshire, Derbyshire, and Nottinghamshire; (e) Leicestershire; (f) Warwickshire, from the centre northward; (g) North Staffordshire; (h) South Staffordshire; (i) Shropshire; (j) Dean Forest, in Gloucestershire, west of the Severn; (k) Bristol, in Gloucestershire and Somersetshire; (1) North Wales, in Flintshire and Denbighshire; (m) South Wales, in Caermarthenshire, Glamorganshire, and Pembrokeshire; and (n) Anglesea, in that island. The coal annually raised is estimated at about 120,000,000 tons.

Iron is found more or less abundantly throughout the country, but it is chiefly worked in South Wales, Staffordshire, Yorkshire, Derbyshire, Durham, Shropshire, North Wales, Furness, and Cumberland. The South Wales district is the largest, producing nearly one-third of the total amount. The quantity of iron made annually is nearly

7,000,000 tons.

Copper is worked to a considerable extent in Cornwall, Devonshire, Anglesea, and

Staffordshire.

Lead is most abundantly worked in Cumberland, Yorkshire, Durham, Northumberland, Shropshire, Cornwall, Devonshire, Cardiganshire, Denbighshire, Flintshire, and the

Salt is found in great quantities in the Weaver valley, in Cheshire, and at Stoke, in Worcestershire.

Other minerals are likewise found and worked to some extent, viz., tin in Devonshire and Cornwall, zinc in the hilly regions, and manganese, plumbago, antimony, arsenic, alum, and fuller's earth. Limestone is very abundant in all mineral districts, whilst good building stone is obtained from Portland, Yorkshire, Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire, and Leicestershire.

Mineral Springs, impregnated with saline particles, are found at Bath (Somersetshire), Clifton and Cheltenham (Gloucestershire), Epsom (Surrey), Learnington (Warwickshire), and Buxton and Matlock (Derbyshire); whilst iron is found in the waters at Tunbridge Wells (Kent), Brighton (Sussex), Cheltenham (Gloucestershire), Great Malvern (Worcestershire), and at Harrogate (Yorkshire). Warm springs are found at Bath, Clifton, Buxton, and Matlock.

Vegetation.—The English soil is not naturally fertile, but its native vegetation is various and important, containing many useful trees, such as the oak, birch, fir, alder, elm, hazel, willow, holly, aspen, blackberry, and blackthorn. In the south, the Spanish chestnut and the mistletoe are of frequent occurrence. The chief forests are the New Forest, in Hampshire; Sherwood Forest, in Nottinghamshire; and Dean Forest, in Gloucestershire.

Zoology.—There are few varieties of either animals or reptiles in England. Wolves and other carnivora are known to have existed, but have been long since exterminated. The representatives of the wild animals are now confined to the fox, badger, otter, weasel, squirrel, rat, and mouse. The birds are, however, very numerous, and remarkable for the beauty of their song, rather than for their plumage. They include the nightingale, thrush, swallow, sparrow, robin, wren, and 271 other varieties. Of the birds of prey, the eagle, falcon, hawk, owl, and magpie are the chief.

The reptiles are the viper, a common black snake, and the blind-worm; the viper

being the only venomous snake.

Fishes are numerous in the rivers and few lakes, whilst on the coasts of Devonshire, Cornwall, Yorkshire, Norfolk, and Essex they form important industries. The fish are chiefly the cod, mackerel, sole, sprat, herring, and pilchard, with the salmon, perch, and trout. The chief domestic animals are the horse, cow, sheep, goat, ass, mule, dog, and cat.

Inhabitants.—In 1871 the population of England and Wales was 22,760,359. The increase in the population is about 14 per cent in 10 years. Since the first census was taken in 1801, the population has increased nearly 14,000,000. The people are of a mixed race, being descendants of the Saxons, Normans, and Danish conquerors, and of the Ancient Britons. Their great characteristic is, undoubtedly, perseverance. They are very unequally distributed, being always most numerous in the centres of industry.

Industrial Occupations.—Every occupation that can possibly be adapted to the country has been entered upon, so that the industries of the British people are more varied than those of any other nation; these industries fall naturally under the divisions of agriculture, manufactures, and mining.

Agriculture.—In every county the land is used, where possible, for agricultural purposes, but in many this is the principal occupation, and those may be classified as devoted to grazing and tillage. The former include Lincolnshire, Leicestershire, Northamptonshire, North Riding of Yorkshire, Cambridgeshire, Wiltshire, Hampshire, Dorsetshire, Somersetshire, Devonshire, Gloucestershire, Herefordshire, Warwickshire, Westmorland, Anglesea, and Radnorshire; whilst the latter are those of Huntingdonshire, Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex, Hertfordshire, Bedfordshire, Buckinghamshire, Oxfordshire, Berkshire, Surrey, Kent, Monmouthshire, Worcestershire, Shropshire, Brecknockshire, Caermarthenshire, and Pembrokeshire.

The chief crops grown are wheat, barley, oats, rye, and hops, with beans and peas; whilst the roots, potato, turnip, mangold wurzel, and carrots, with cabbages and vetches, are extensively cultivated. Nearly one-half of the land is, however, under permanent grass for grazing. The chief animals fed are the ox and sheep. Of the former there is calculated to be about 4 millions, whilst of sheep there is generally about 23 millions kept.

Fruit is grown to some extent in every county, but in a few they form an important production. The counties of Herefordshire and Devonshire are especially noted for their fine apples and other fruit.

Manufactures.—The chief articles of manufacture are those of cotton, wool, silk, metal, china and stoneware, and leather. Each of these has a distinct location, and

many hands are employed in their manufacture.

Cotton.—The chief towns engaged in this manufacture are Manchester, Oldham, Bury, Bolton, Wigan, Rochdale, Preston, Burnley, Ashton, and Warrington in Lancashire, Stockport in Cheshire, and Glossop in Derbyshire. The English factories use one-half of the cotton grown, it being manufactured in 2,000 mills by about 600,000 workmen.

Cotton hose are made throughout the county of Nottinghamshire; and lace at

Nottingham, Leicester, Derby, Honiton, and in the south of Somersetshire.

Wool.—The manufacture of woollen cloth was at one time a national industry, but the increased employment of machinery has gradually driven it from all districts except near the coal fields. The chief seat is in the west of Yorkshire, at Leeds, Halifax, Huddersfield, Barnsley, Wakefield, and Bradford, and at Rochdale in Lancashire.

Carpets are made in the West Riding of York, and at Kidderminster in Worcester-

shire, as well as at Louth in Lincolnshire.

Flannel is manufactured in large quantities in the counties of Montgomeryshire. Caermarthenshire, Glamorganshire, Merionethshire, and Denbighshire—the towns Newtown and Llanidloes, in Montgomeryshire, being the centres of the trade.

Woollen hose are made in Leicestershire.

Silk goods.—The extent of the manufacture of these goods is far from being equal to that of cotton or wool; but a few places are still engaged in it, the chief being Spitalfields in East London, Macclesfield in Cheshire, and at Nottingham.

Ribbons are made in large quantities at Coventry in Warwickshire.

Silk hose are made at the town of Derby in Derbyshire.

Metal goods.—Founding and forging at Merthyr Tydvil in Glamorganshire, Middlesborough in North Yorkshire, Darlington, Consett and Gateshead in Durham, and Barrowin-Furness.

Steel is manufactured at Sheffield and Barnsley in Yorkshire.

Steel goods are made at Birmingham in Warwickshire, Dudley, Wolverhampton, Walsall, and Bilston in Staffordshire.

Cutlery is manufactured at Sheffield and Birmingham.

China and stoneware are made at a district in Staffordshire known as the Potteries. The chief towns engaged in this manufacture are Burslem, Hanley, Stoke-upon-Trent, Longton, Tunstall, and Newcastle-under-Lyme.

Leather goods.—The manufacture of these goods affords occupation for many people. The seats of this manufacture are London, Worcester, and Oxford for gloves; and London, Northampton, Stafford and Leicester for boots and shoes.

Besides these there are other manufactures of great extent, although more scattered and of less commercial advantage. The chief of these are: Glass at Newcastle, London, Birmingham, and in Staffordshire; watches, &c., at London, Liverpool, and Coventry; silver and plated goods at Birmingham, Sheffield, and London; paper in Middlesex, Surrey, and Kent; books chiefly in London, but also in all large towns; beer and spirits at London, and Burton-on-Trent; sugar refineries in London, Liverpool, and Bristol; soap works in London, Bristol, and Liverpool; linen at Barnsley in Yorkshire; copper and bronze at Swansea, Birmingham, and Liverpool; bronze castings, lead, zinc, and tin goods at Birmingham; chemical products at Newcastle, Shields, London, and Bristol; perfumeries at Windsor; and shipbuilding at London, Liverpool, Sunderland, Devonport, Portsmouth, Chatham, Hull, Whitby, Yarmouth, Newcastle, Whitehaven, and Sheerness.

Mining.—The raising of the various minerals gives occupation to very large numbers of the population. The districts in which the various minerals are found, and consequently, the seats of mining operations, have been already given.

Commerce.—The great mineral wealth of the country, its insular position, and the national industry that produces a stupendous amount of manufactured material, has placed England at the head of all commercial nations. Its productions are forwarded to every civilized and to many uncivilized nations; whilst in return it receives from them the materials for home manufactures. As will have been seen, many articles manufactured here are made from raw material obtained entirely from foreign lands; whilst in the great majority of articles, the home produce of raw material is far from sufficient for the requirements of England. Large quantities of food are also imported, together with numerous articles of luxury.

Imports.—Raw cotton (12,000,000 cwt.) from United States, East Indies, Brazil and Egypt; wool, from Australia, Cape Colony, Egypt, Turkey, Morocco, and South America; silk, from India, Italy, China, and France; flax, from Russia; hemp, from India and Russia; hides, from India, Cape of Good Hope, Russia, and South America; and timber, from Canada, Prussia, Sweden, and Norway-all being material for manufacture.

The chief articles of food, &c., imported are: wheat, from Russia, United States, France, and Egypt; barley and oats, from Germany, Holland, and Denmark; rye, from Russia; maize, from the United States; rice, from the East and West Indies; sago and arrowroot, from the East and West Indies; tea, from China and India; coffee, from Ceylon, West Indies, and Brazi; sugar, from Mauritius and West Indies; dried fruits, from the Mediterranean countries and the Azores; dairy produce, from France, Holland, and Ireland; pepper, ginger, nutmeys, cinnamon, and other spices, from India and Ceylon; medicinal herbs from China, South America, and India; tobacco, from United States and East and West Indies; spirits and wines from France, Spain, Portugal, and Jamaica; oils of various kinds from Italy, Spain, Holland, India, and Newfoundland, with petroleum from Canada and the United States.

In addition to these there are a vast number of articles imported of less value, such as indigo, gums, cochineal, madder, pearl-ashes, sulphur, sarsaparilla, gutta-percha and

indiarubber, with guano, a manure from Peru.

EXPORTS.—The chief articles are those manufactured, viz., cotton, woollen and silk goods, wrought-iron, steel, cutlery, hardware, linen, copper and brass, earthenware, beer, ale, leather, glass, tin, machinery, stationery and books, with tin, coal, copper, dried fish, and salt.

The chief countries to which these goods are exported, arranged in order of quantity, are, the United States, Australia, India, Germany, France, Holland, British Colonies in

North America, West Indies, Brazil, Turkey and Belgium.

The annual value of the export trade is estimated at £230,000,000.

Means of Communication.—The foreign trade is carried on by means of 22,000 vessels, having a tonnage of more than 5,500,000 tons. The ships of other nations are likewise engaged in carrying English goods. The coasting voyages of English ships number annually more than 200,000, the weight of goods carried being 22,000,000 tons. The chief ports for this and the foreign traffic are, London, Liverpool, Bristol, Hull, Stockton, Southampton, Newcastle, Gloucester, Plymouth, Whitehaven, Sunderland, Cardiff, and Barrow-in-Furness.

The communication in the interior is carried on by means of the rivers, aided by many canals, numerous roads in every direction, and railway communication between the chief towns. There are 2,300 miles in use. The chief canals are that which joins the Humber and Mersey; the Huddersfield, Rochdale, Liverpool and Leeds Canals, and the

Thames and Severn Canal.

The railways are controlled by different companies. Their length in England and Wales is over 10,000 miles. The chief companies are:—

- I. LONDON AND NORTH WESTERN: London to Lancaster and Carlisle.
- II. GREAT WESTERN: London to Bristol, Exeter, and Plymouth.
- III. NORTH EASTERN: Doncaster to Berwick.
- IV. MIDLAND: London to Derby and Morecambe.
- V. GREAT NORTHERN: London to York and Doncaster.
- VI. LONDON AND SOUTH WESTERN: London to Portsmouth, Exeter, and Plymouth.
- VII. GREAT EASTERN: London to Norwich, Cambridge, and Ipswich.
- VIII. LONDON, BRIGHTON, AND SOUTH COAST: London to Brighton.
  - IX. LONDON, CHATHAM, AND DOVER.
  - X. South Eastern: London to Ramsgate and Margate.
  - XI. LANCASHIRE AND YORKSHIRE: Liverpool to Hull.
  - XII. MANCHESTER, SHEFFIELD AND LINCOLNSHIRE: Manchester to Grimsby.

Each of these railways has a main line; with these are connected systems of branch lines that intersect the country, so that there are few places which are not within twelve miles from a railway station.

Divisions and Towns.—The names of the counties have already been given, as well as information as to the chief occupation followed in each. The remaining requisite information will be found in the following table, which shows the area, population, and

chief towns of each county, the county town being placed first.

The county of Yorkshire has three divisions, called Ridings. Lincolnshire is divided into three districts, named Kesteven, Lindsey, and Holland. The smaller sub-divisions of Yorkshire and Lincolnshire are called Wapentakes, whilst most of the counties are divided into Hundreds. Kent is divided into Lathes; Sussex, into Rapes; and Northumberland, Cumberland, Westmoreland, Durham, and Lancashire, are divided into Wards.

### COUNTIES AND CHIEF TOWNS.

Counties.	Area in Square Miles.	Population in 1871.	CHIEF TOWNS.
NORTHUMBERLAND	1,952	386,646	Newcastle, 176,000; Tynemouth, 38,900; Ber-
CUMBERLAND	1,564	220,253	wick-on-Tweed, Hexham, Morpeth. Carlisle, 31,000; Whitehaven, 18,400; Cocker-
WESTMORLAND DURHAM.	758 973	65,010 685,089	mouth, Keswick, Penrith, Maryport.   Appleby, Kendal, 13,442.   Durham, 14,400; Sunderland, 98,000; South
Yorkshire :	310	000,000	Shields, 41,000; Stockton, Darlington, 27,000; Hartlepool, 13,000; Seaham Harbour.
North Riding	2,114	293,270	York, 43,800; Middlesbrough, 39,000; Scarborough, 21,000; Whitby, 13,000; Rich-
East Riding	1,200	268,466	mond, Thirsk, Malton, Filey, Northallerton. Hull, 121,000; Beverley, 10,000; Bridlington.
West Riding	2,669	1,874,611	Leeds, 295,000; Sheffield, 239,947; Bradford 146,000; Huddersfield, 70,000; Halifax, 65,000;
			Wakefield, 28,000; Dewsbury, Barnsley, and Batley, 21,000; Doncaster, 18,700; Rother-
Lancashire	1,905	2,819,000	ham, Ripon, Pontefract, Harrogate.  Lancaster, 16,000; Manchester and Salford,
			592,000; Liverpool, 493,400; Preston, 85,000; Bolton and Oldham, 82,000 each; Blackburn,
			76,000; St. Helens, 45,000; Rochdale, 63,485; Bury, 41,000; Wigan, Ashton-under-Lyne,
			Warrington, and Burnley, between 30,000 and 40,000; Barrow-in-Furness and South-
CHESHIRE	1,105	561,131	port, 18,000; Chorley, 16,000; Middleton, 14,000; and Clitheroe, 12,000. Chester, 35,700; Birkenhead, 67,000; Stock-
OHESHINE	1,100	301,131	port, 54,000; Macclesfield, 40,000; Congleton, Northwich, Middlewich, Nantwich, Crewe.
DERBYSHIRE	1,029	379,374	Derby, 49,900; Glossop, 12,000; Chesterfield, Belper, Matlock, and Buxton. [Southwell
NOTTINGHAMSHIRE	822	319,758	Nottingham, 86,700; Newark, Mansfield, and Leicester, 95,100; Loughborough, Market
LEICESTERSHIRE		269,311	Bosworth, Hinckley, Melton Mowbray, and
RUTLANDSHIRE NORTHAMPTONSHIBE	150 985	22,100	Oakham, Uppingham. [Ashby-de-la-Zouch. Northampton, 41,000; Peterborough, 17,000;
NORTHAMPTONSHIBE	900	243,896	Wellingborough, and Kettering.
HUNTINGDONSHIRE		63,672	Huntingdon, 4,300; St. Ives, St. Neots.
Cambridgeshire	819	186,906	Cambridge, 30,100; Wisbeeh, Newmarket, Ely, and March. [Leighton Buzzard.
BEDFORDSHIRE	462	146,257	Bedford, 17,000; Luton, 17,000; Dunstable, Hertford, 7,200; St. Albans, Ware, Hitchin,
HERTFORDSHIRE	611	192,726	Hertford, 7,200; St. Albans, Ware, Hitchin, and Stortford.
MIDDLESEX	282	2,539,765	London (including Southwark and Westminster, 3,252,000); Brentford, Uxbridge,
Buckinghamshire	730	175,879	Staines, Harrow, Chelsea.  Aylesbury, Buckingham, High Wycombe, Great Marlow, and Nawyort
OXFORDSHIRE	737	177,975	Marlow, and Newport. [Woodstock. Oxford, 31,000; Banbury, Henley, Witney, and
	1,258	534,640	Gloucester, 18,400; Bristol, 183,000; Chelten-
Monmouthshire	576	195,448	ham, 43,000; Stroud, Tewkesbury, Cirencester Monmouth, 6,000; Newport, 27,000; Chepstow, Abergavenny.

### COUNTIES AND CHIEF TOWNS.—Continued.

Counties,	Area in Square Miles.	Population in 1871.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Herefordshire	836	125,370	Hereford, 18,000; Leominster, Ross, Ledbury.
Worcestershire	738	338,837	Worcester, 33,400; Dudley, 44,000; Kidderminster, 19,000; Malvern.
WARWICKSHIRE	881	634,189	Warwick, 12,000; Birmingham, 344,000;
Staffordshire	1,138	858,326	Coventry, Rugby, Nuneaton, Stratford-on-Avon Stafford, 14.500: Wolverhampton, 68.000:
			Stafford, 14,500; Wolverhampton, 68,000; Walsall, 46,000; Bilston, Bromwich, and Newcastle-under-Lyme, 16,000.
Shropshire	1,291	248,111	Shrewsbury, 23,400; Oswestry, Bridgenorth,
Lincolnshire	2,777	436,959	Wenlock, Ludlow, and Whitchurch.  Lincoln, 27,000; Grimsby, 20,000; Boston,
	1		15,600; Gainsborough, Grantham, and Louth.
Norfolk	2,117	438,656	Norwich, 81,000; Yarmouth, 41,000; King's Lynn, 16,000; Wells, and Thetford.
Suffolk	1,481	348,869	Ipswich, 43,000; Bury St. Edmunds, 15,000;
Essex	1,657	466,436	Lowestoft and Sudbury. [Barking. Chelmsford, 27 000: Harwich, Maldon, 9 600:
Kent	1,627	848,294	Chelmsford, 27,000; Harwich, Maldon, 9,600; Maidstone, 26,200; Chatham, 61,000; Wool-
		·	wich, Dover, 29,000; Canterbury, Gravesend,
			Tunbridge Wells, 21,000; Ramsgate, 15,000;
SURREY	748	1,091,365	Folkestone, Margate, Tunbridge, Deal, Romney.
DURREI	140	1,001,000	Guildford, 9,200; Croydon, Reigate, and Kingston, 15,500; Richmond, Dorking;
~			(part of London is in Surrey.)
Sussex	1,458	417,456	Lewes, 11,000; Brighton, 91,000; Hastings, 29,000; Chichester, and Shoreham.
HAMPSHIRE	1,672	544,684	Winchester, 15,000; Portsmouth, 113,000;
	1		Southampton, 55,000; Gosport, Andover,
D	705	100 175	Basingstoke, Petersfield. [Maidenhead.
Berkshire	705	196,475 195,537	Reading, 32,000; Windsor, 12,000; Newbury, Dorchester, 7,000; Weymouth, 13,000; Poole,
DOMSEISHIME	200	100,001	Bridport, Wareham, Shaftesbury .
WILTSHIRE	1,353	257,177	Salisbury, 13,000; Devizes, Trowbridge, Wilton, Westbury, Swindon. [Frome, Yeovil.
Somersetshire	738	463,483	Taunton, 15,400; Bath, 52,000; Bridgewater,
DEVONSHIRE	2,589	601,374	Exeter, 34,600; Plymouth, 118,000; Barn-
•			staple, Tiverton, Tavistock, Teignmouth, Bideford, Totnes.
CORNWALL	1,365	362,343	Bodmin, 4,600; Truro, Penzance, St. Ives,
Anglesea	302	51,040	Falmouth, Liskeard, Launceston.  Beaumaris, 2,200; Amlwch, Llamfaes.
CAERNARVONSHIRE		106,121	Caernarvon, 9,300; Pwllheli, Llanberis, Bangor.
DENBIGHSHIRE	603	105,102	Denbigh, 3,300; Ruthin, Wrexham, Ruabon.
FLINTSHIRE	289	76,312	Mold; Holywell, Hawarden, St. Asaph.
MERIONETHSHIRE	602	46,598	Dolgelly; Harlech, Bala, Barmouth.
Montgomeryshire	755	67,263	Montgomery; Newtown, Welshpool, Llandiloes.
RADNORSHIRE	425	25,430	Presteign; Knighton, New Radnor.
CARDIGANSHIRE	693	73,441	Cardigan; Aberystwyth, Aberaeron, Lampeter.
PEMBROKESHIRE	628	91,998	Haverfordwest; Pembroke, 13,700; Milford, Tenby.
CAERMARTHENSHIRE	947 719	115,710 59,901	Caermarthen; Llandovery, Llanelly, Kidwelly. Brecknock; Builth, Crickhowel, Penderyn.
Brecknockshire GLAMORGANSHIRE	855	397,859	Cardiff; 39,000; Swansea, 51,000; Merthyr
Gumundanshire	000	001,000	Tydvil with Aberdare, 97,000.
			1 -3 2



### SCOTLAND.

Boundaries.—Scotland occupies the northern and smaller portion of the Island of Great Britain. It is bounded on the east by the North Sea, on the north and west by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the south by the Solway Firth and England.

Extent.—The greatest length, between the Mull of Galloway and John o' Groats, is 280 miles; the greatest breadth, between West Ross and Buchan Ness, is 160 miles; and the least breadth, between Renfrew and Grangemouth, is 30 miles.

The area of Scotland and the adjacent islands is 19,496,132 acres, which is equal to 30,463 square miles.

Coast.—The northern and the western coasts, as far south as Loch Linnhe, consists of bold rocky cliffs, into which the sea has broken a large number of long narrow inlets. From Loch Linnhe, around the Mull of Cantire and the Firth of Clyde, the coast is low; from Ayr to the Mull of Galloway it is rocky, whilst the southern coast, washed by the Solway Firth, is low and sandy. On the east coast, from the Tweed to the Tay, the cliffs are high and bold, but after this they become less elevated, and from the Dee to Tarbet Ness the shore is low and sandy. The remaining portion of the east coast resembles the northern.

Seas.—The North Sea washes the eastern coast, its depth being considerably greater than when off the southern part of the English coast. The average depth is about 350 feet, and the tide reaches a height of 14 feet.

The Pentland Firth is an arm of the sea separating the Orkney Islands from the mainland. The depth of this portion of water is considerable.

The Atlantic Ocean has a depth of 600 feet within twenty miles of the shore, while's nearer the shore its depth is very considerable. To the storms raging on this ocean is attributed the numerous gulfs on the western shores.

\*Divisions.—Scotland is divided into thirty-three counties, which may be arranged as the Southern, Central, and Northern Counties.

Southern Counties.—Berwick, Roxburgh, Dumfries, Kirkeudbright, Wigton, Ayr, Lanark, Peebles, Selkirk, Haddington, Edinburgh, Linlithgow, Renfrew, and Bute.

Central Counties.—Argyle, Dumbarton, Stirling, Clackmannan, Kinross, Fife, Perth, Forfar, and Kincardine.

Northern Counties.—Aberdeen, Banff, Elgin, Nairn, Inverness, Ross, Cromarty, Sutherland, Caithness, Orkney and Shetland.

Headlands.—On the East, St. Abb's Head, in Berwick; Fife Ness, in Fife; Buddon Ness and Red Head, in Forfar; Buchan Ness, Kinnaird's Head, and Tarbet Ness, in Ross; Ross Head and Duncansby Head, in Caithness.

On the North, Dunnett Head, in Caithness; Strathy Head, Far-out-Head, and Cape Wrath, in Sutherland.

On the West, Stair Head, in Sutherland; Ardamurchan Point, and Mull of Cantire, in Argyle; Corsill Point, in Wigton.

On the South, Mull of Galloway and Burrow Head, in Wigton; and Ross Head, in Kirkcudbright.

<sup>\*</sup> The counties of Scotland are given thus early to permit of their after use in referring to position, &c.

Openings.—On the East, Firth of Forth, Firth of Tay, Moray Firth, Cromarty Firth, Dornoch Firth, and Sinclair Bay.

On the North, Thurso Bay, Kyle of Tongue, Loch Ubolt, and Kyle of Durness.

On the West, Loch Broom, Loch Ewe, Loch Torridon, Loch Carron, Loch Hourin, Loch Mordart, Loch Linnhe, Loch Fyne, Firth of Clyde, Loch Ryan.

On the South, Luce Bay, Wigton Bay, Solway Firth.

The most important of these openings are: The Firth of Clyde—a safe harpour in all weathers when vessels are inside the islands, which form a grand, natural breakwater; the Firth of Forth, and the Firth of Tay. The majority of the openings on the west are long, narrow fissures projecting into the land, broken by the stormy waves of the Atlantic.

\*Islands.—Arran Island, Bute and Cambray, in the Firth of Clyde; the Hebrides, consisting of the Inner Hebrides and the Outer Hebrides, off the coast of Argyle, Inverness, Ross, and Sutherland; the Orkney Islands, north of Caithness; and the Shetland Islands, north of the Orkneys.

Mountains.—The whole of Scotland is mountainous, but there is a vast difference in the character of the country north of the Clyde and Tay, and that part south of it. The hills in the latter part are numerous and of moderate height, being separated by broad alluvial valleys; and they are often cultivated, or at least supply good pasture for sheep and cattle. In the former district, however, the hills are elevated to greater height than elsewhere in the island, their appearance is bleak and wild, the valleys which separate them are often narrow and deep, and their slopes are frequently precipitous. The mountains are generally grouped as the low-land mountains, Grampian mountains, and Northern mountains. The Lowland mountains are numerous ranges in Scotland south of the Clyde; the Grampians run in a north-east direction through Argyle and Inverness; and the northern mountains occupy the mountainous region north of the Caledonian Canal.

Lowlands.—The chief ranges in this district are the Cheviot Hills on the borders of England; Pentland Hills in Edinburgh; Black Larg mountains in the north of Kirkeudbright; Muirfoof, and Lammermoor Hills in Edinburgh and Haddington; with the Lowther Hills in South Lanark and Peebles, which are connected with the heights known as Ettrick Pen.

The highest peaks are: Cheviot, 2,688ft., and Carter Fell, in the Cheviots; the Black Larg, 2,300ft.; Muirfoot, 2,200ft., and Mickle Says Law, in the Lammermoor Hills; Harte Fell, 2,700ft., and Ettrick Pen, 2,300ft., in the Lowther Hills and the detached hills; Broad Law, 2,800ft., and White Combe, 2,700ft. high.

Grampians.—Spreading through the counties of Perth, Argyle, Inverness and Aberdeen, these mountains give a wild aspect to the whole country. The highest hills found in this range are Ben Nevis, 4,406ft. high, in Inverness; Ben MacDui, 4,295ft., in Aberdeen; Ben Lawers, 3,984ft., in Aberdeen; Ben More, 3,818ft., in Perth; Ben Cruachan 3,300ft., in Argyle; Ben Lomond, 3,102ft., in Stirling; and Ben Avon, Caira, Foul, and Ben Aulder.

Northern Highlands.—These mountains occupy the whole of the country north of the Caledonian Canal. The chief hills are Ben Attow, 4,000ft., Ben Wyvis, 3,422ft., Ben More, 3,281ft., Ben Khibreck, 3,157ft., Ben Larg, Ben Hope, Ben Dearg, and Ben Serial. The whole of this district is wild and dreary, the ground being little but sheep walks. The Duke of Sutherland has at great expense reclaimed several thousands of acres of waste ground on his estates here.

Plains and Valleys.—The only plain of importance in the whole of the country is that of Strathmore, the great plain. It stretches from Kincardine in a south-west direction to the banks of the River Forth, north of Stirling, scarcely an elevation being found on its surface. Less important plains are those of Cromarty around Dornoch Firth, and the plain of Caithness in that country.

<sup>\*</sup> A detailed account of the principal islands will be found on pages 26 and 27.

The valleys of Scotland receive the name of glens in the Northern Highlands, where they are generally narrow and deep, having steep sides. Amongst the larger glens are Glen Shiel and Glen Flinnan, in Inverness; but the most important and the most peculiar glen in Scotland is Glen More, stretching from Lock Linnhe on the west to Moray Firth on the east, and containing the lakes that form the chief part of the Caledonian Canal. In the Grampians, and southward to the Clyde, the valleys are called straths, as Strath Spey and Strath More, whilst in the Lowlands they receive the name of dales, as Cheviot Dale, &c.

Rivers.—The Scotch rivers nearly all flow eastward, in consequence of the hills being nearer to the western than to the eastern coasts, and thus preventing the formation of rivers of any size with a westward flow. The following table shows the principal rivers of Scotland, arranged in divisions according to the sea into which they flow. I., into the North Sea; II., Atlantic Ocean; III., North Channel or Solway Firth:

RIVERS OF SCOTLAND.

Div.	River.	Rises.	Enters the Sea.		Area of Drain- age.
				Miles.	S. Mls.
ſ	Tweed	Harte Fell	} Berwick	96	1,900
	Teviot	Ettrick Pen Lammermoor	South of Firth of Forth		
	Forth	Ben Lomond	Firth of Forth	110	650
- 14	Leven	Kinross	NorthofFirthofForth		000
	Eden	North of Kinross	St. Andrew's Bay	30	
	Tay	Grampians	\ \	00	
	Tummel	Loch Lydoch	)		
T .	Garry	Grampians	Total C. FO	100	2,500
I. {	Ericht	Blair Atholl	Firth of Tay	128	2,300
i	Dean	East Forfar			
	Earn	Loch Earn	J		
	South Esk		North Forfar		
	North Esk	Braes of Angus	North Forfar		<b>#</b> 00
	Dee	Ben MacDui	Aberdeen Bay [Mouth		700
	Don	West Aberdeen [ness.	3 miles North of Dee		550
18	Spey	Grampians; South Inver-	WesternExtremityof		1,200
C	Findhorn	Grampians	Findhorn Bay [Banff	55	
,	Cl1	T . (1 . TT'))	1		
	Clyde Douglas	Lowther Hills Cairntable	Firth of Clyde	98	1,600
II.	Avon	Drumclog	Firth of Clyde	98	1,000
	Ayr	Avr	Firth of Clyde	30	
,	21y1	Ay1	Firm of Clyde	30	
(	Cree	North Wigton	Wigton Bay	25	1
III.	Dee	Black Larg	Mouth of Dee	45	
111.	Nith	North of Black Larg	Solway Firth		450
(	Esk	Ettrick Pen	Solway Firth		

None of the Scotch rivers, with the exception of the Clyde and Forth, are useful for navigation. In the majority of cases these rivers have, however, broad estuaries, available as harbours for shipping.

Lakes.—Scotland has numerous lakes, the majority of them having magnificent scenery in their neighbourhood. They are nearly all found within and north of the district occupied by the Grampians, there being but few, and none of any size, found south of the river Clyde. The following Table below will give the chief facts regarding the principal lakes:—

#### THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

## LAKES OF SCOTLAND.

Lake.	Situation.	Greatest Length.	Greatest Breadth.	Area.
		Miles.	Miles.	Sq. Mls.
Lomond	Between Stirling and Dumbarton	24	7	45
Awe		24	4	30
Ness	The Caledonian Canal	26	$2\frac{1}{2}$	28
Tay		14	$2^{-}$	22
Eright	The eastern borders of Inverness	14	$1\frac{1}{2}$	12
Treag	The south of Inverness	11	$1\frac{3}{4}$	12
Laggan	The Grampians of Inverness	6	14	4
Earn	Perthshire, South of Loch Tay	7	1	4
Eck	South of Argyle	8	0월	3
Lydoch		10	2	3 5
Katrine	South-west of Perthshire	8	11/2	6
Ramnoch			$1\frac{1}{2}$	10
Shiel			18/4	9
Eil	North-east of Argyle		$1\frac{1}{2}$	7
Arkaig		11	11	8
Lochy	The Caledonian Canal.		2	6
Fannich	Centre of Ross.		3	9
Maree			21	24
Shin	South Sutherland		11	18
Naver	Central Sutherland.		14	7
±100 01	Contrar Sutherialia	•	14	

Climate.—The climate of Scotland bears a close resemblance to that of England, with a slight lowering of the average temperature, to be accounted for by its higher latitude. In the Shetland Islands the sea so modifies heat and cold that the inhabitants suffer less extremes than the people of any other portion of the British Islands. The prevailing wind is easterly in the spring and summer, and is both disagreeable and unhealthy. The rainfall is much heavier than in England, and the western coast is more humid than the eastern. The average number of rainy days is more than two hundred, and in the harvest season it is no uncommon thing for copious showers to fall and spoil the crops.

Minerals.—Scotland does not possess the mineral resources of England, either in regard to variety or extent; the former being confined to the minerals—coal, iron, lead, building stone, granite, and slate—the latter to the country south of the Grampians.

Coal is found in the district lying between the Clyde and the Forth on the north, and Abb's Head and Girvan on the south. There are many places in this portion where coal is not found, but the estimated area of the coal fields is 1,000 square miles. The best coal is found around Glasgow, on the banks of the Forth, and south of Edinburgh.

Ironstone of good quality is found throughout this district, and is extensively worked

in the neighbourhood of Glasgow, and in Renfrew and South Dumbarton.

Lead is obtained in considerable quantities from the Lowther Hills in South Lanark.

A portion of this range is known as the Lead Hills.

Building Stone. Of these stones Scotland possesses a variety, some of them greatly used in large buildings. The chief are marble, raised in Sutherland, Aberdeen, Argyle, and Lothian, and granite from the Highlands, Aberdeen, and Kirkcudbright. State is obtained in large quantities in the county of Argyle.

Mineral Springs containing saline compounds are found near Stirling, Perth, Interleithen, and Peterhead, and iron springs exist at Harte Fell, Vicar's Bridge, and

Bonnington.

Vegetation.—The Scottish soil is less fertile than that of England, and the vegetation north of the Clyde is meagre; the greater part of the country being wild moorland, generally supply grass for the cattle and sheep, but without trees of any size, save a few forests of fir

in Aberdeen and the neighbourhood. South of the Clyde the vegetation closely resembles that of the North of England; the same trees, viz., oak, birch, beech, ash, hazel, willow, alder, poplar, and mountain ash are found, but the beautiful hedgerows of the South of England are not to be seen in Scotland.

Zoology.—All the animals found in England are also to be found in Scotland, and the numbers of grouse, deer, and blackcock are far greater. The domestic animals are also the same as those of England, and require no especial mention.

Inhabitants.—At the census taken in 1871 the people of Scotland numbered 3,600,018, or only 112 to the square mile. These inhabitants are of two distinct races, the one occupying the Lowlands, and the other North Scotland. The Lowlanders are a mixed race closely allied to the English, and speaking dialects of the same tongue; but the Highlanders have descended almost without intermixture from the Celtic or Gaelic race, and speak that language. The Lowlanders are the more numerous, and the district inhabited by them includes the Grampians.

Industrial Occupations.—Scotland resembles England in having important agricultural, manufacturing, and mining industries—the manufactures being proportionally greater even than in England.

Agriculture.—The soil is poor, and only one-fourth of the land is fit for cultivation, so that the natural difficulties of the farmer are great. The Scotch, however, are the most skilful farmers in the British Islands, and grow comparatively good crops of oats, barley, and rye. Only one-eighth of the country is tilled into crops, the other part of the cultivated land being grass land. Nearly the whole of the tilled land is in the Lowlands; the counties of Haddington, Linlithgow, Berwick, and Edinburgh having the richest soil. On the moorlands within and north of the Grampians, a large number of cattle and sheep are kept; the average number of sheep in Scotland being six millions.

Manufactures.—The great manufactures of Scotland are cotton, woollen, and linen goods, metal goods, and shipbuilding. In addition to these there are numerous smaller industries, nearly the whole of them being confined to the country south of the Grampians.

Cotton is the chief article of manufacture, the chief seats being Glasgow (Lanark), Paisley (Renfrew), Stirling (Stirling), Kinross (Kinross), and Aberdeen.

Linen was the old staple manufacture, and still remains of considerable importance; the chief seats are Dundee, Arbroath, Brechin, and Montrose in Forfar, and Cupar and Kirkcaldy in Fife, for coarse articles; whilst table linen, diapers, and damasks are made at Dumfermline (Fife).

Woollen Goods are manufactured throughout the counties of Stirling, Roxburgh, Aberdeen, Selkirk, and Ayr, though to no considerable extent. Woollen hose are made at Hawick (Roxburgh); carpets at Kilmarnock (Ayr) and Bannockburn (Stirling); shawls and tartans at Stirling, Bannockburn and Kinross; plaids and flannels at Hawick; and tweeds at Galashiels (Selkirk) at Interleithen (Peebles).

Metal Goods.—Machinery is made at Kilmarnock, Glasgow, and Greenock; and there are extensive iron foundries at Dundee, Carron (Stirling), Dalkeith (Edinburgh), and

Kirkintilloch and Cumbernauld (Dumbarton).

Shipbuilding is carried on extensively at Greenock and Port Glasgow, the machinery

being constructed at Glasgow.

Less important manufactures are—Soap at Glasgow, Paisley, Aberdeen, Leith (Edinburgh), Prestonpans, and Montrose; ale at Edinburgh and Alloa (Clackmannan); lace at Hamilton (Lanark); leather at Edinburgh and Kilmarnock; silk and muslin at Renfrew, Paisley, Glasgow, and Edinburgh; and flint glass, type, brass founding, and books at Edinburgh.

Mining.—The seats of mining operations have been already given on page 18.

Commerce.—The commerce of Scotland is much the same as that of England, the extent however being much less. Reference to the imports and exports of England will give full descriptions of Scotch commerce. A great quantity of cattle and agricultural produce is exported to England.

IMPORTS.—Cotton, wool, silk, hemp, flax, tea, coffee, sugar, tobacco, spirits, wine, &c. Exports.—Cotton, linen, woollen, and silk goods, machinery, glass, cattle, and agricultural produce.

Means of Communication.—The large number of vessels in the British tract-have been already shown in England, and of these a fair proportion trade with Scotlan The import and export trade during a year amounts to about £100,000,000. The chi ports are Glasgow, Leith, Greenock, Aberdeen, Port Glasgow, Dundee, Montrose, Grangemouth, Perth, and Arbroath.

Inland communication is effected by good roads throughout the Lowlands and the greater part of the Highlands; canals, of which the chief are the Caledonian Canal and the Clyde Canal; and several railways connecting the chief towns, and also having direct connection in some cases with London and the chief English towns. The principal railways are:

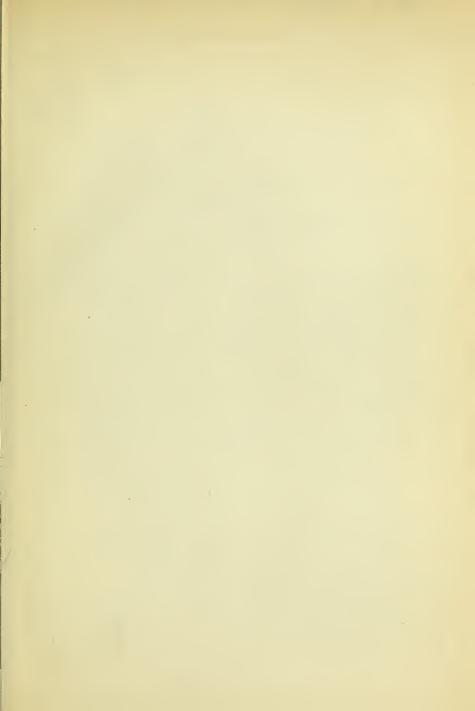
I The Caledonian Railway.

II. The Glasgow and South Western Railway.

III. The North British Railway.

Divisions and Towns.—The following table shows the area and population of each county together with its chief towns:—

. County.	Area in Sq. Miles.	Population.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Berwick	461	36,486	Greenlaw, 800; Dunse, Coldstream, Chirnside.
Roxburgh		53,974	Jedburgh, 2,300; Hawick, Kelso, Melrose.
DUMFRIES	1	74,808	Dumfrics, 15,000; Annan, Sanguhar, Moffat.
Kirkcudbright		41,859	Kirkcubright, New Galloway, Castle Douglas.
WIGTON		38,830	Wigton, 2,000; Stranraer, 6,000; Stoneykirk.
AYR		200,809	Ayr, 18,000; Kilmarnock, 22,000; Irvine, Girvan, Muirkirk, Galston.
LANARK	881	765,339	Lanark, 5,000; Glasgow, 448,000; Airdrie, 13,000; Hamilton, 11,500; Strathaven.
PEEBLES	354	12,330	Peebles, 2,000; Innerleithen, Linton.
Selkirk		14,005	Selkirk, 4,700; Galashiels, 10,000; Yarrow.
HADDINGTON		37,771	Haddington, 4,000; Dunbar, Gifford.
Edinburgh	362	328,379	Edinburgh, 197,000; Leith, 44,000; Musselburgh, Portobello, Dalkeith.
LINLITHGOW	120	40,965	Linlithgow, 3,800; Queensferry, Bathgate.
Renfrew	245	216,947	Renfrew, 4,000; Paisley, 48,000; Greenock, 57,000; Port Glasgow, Johnstone.
Bute	217	16,977	Rothesay, Brodick, Millport.
ARGYLE		75,679	Inverary, 1,000; Campbeltown, Oban.
DUMBARTON	241	58,857	Dumbarton, 11,000; Kirkintilloch, Helensburgh.
STIRLING	447	98,218	Stirling, 14,000; Falkirk, Kilsyth, Bannockburn.
CLACKMANNAN	47	23,747	Clackmannan, 2,000; Alloa, Tillicoultry.
KINROSS	72	7,198	Kinross, 2,000; Milnathort.
FIFE	492	160,735	Cupar, 5,000; Dunfermline, 15,000; Dysart, St. Andrew's.
Perth	2,523	127,768	Perth, 25,000; Crieff, Blairgowrie, Kincardine.
Forfar	875	237,567	Forfar, 11,000; Dundee, 120,000; Montrose, 15,000; Arbroath, Brechin.
KINCARDINE	383	34,630	Stonehaven, 3,000; Bervie. [burgh.
ABERDEEN	1,970	244,603	Aberdeen, 88,000; Peterhead, Huntley, Fraser-
Banff	686	62,023	Banff, 7,400; Buckie, Keith.
Elgin	531	43,621	Elgin, 8,000; Lossiemouth, Forres
NAIRN	215	10,225	Nairn, 3,400; Cawdor.
Inverness		87,531	Inverness, 14,400; Laggan, Kingussie.
Ross and Cromarty		80,955	Dingwall, 2,000; Stornoway, Tain, Cromarty.
SUTHERLAND	1,886	24,317	Dornoch, 640; Golspie, Helmsdale.
CAITHNESS	712	39,992	Wick, 8,000; Thurso, Keiss, Castletown.
ORKNEY	600	31,274	Kirkwall, 3,500.
SHETLAND	750	31,608	Lerwick, 3,000.





#### IRELAND.

Boundaries.—Ireland is washed on three sides by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the other side, the East, it has the Irish Sea and St. George's Channel.

Extent.—The greatest length is from Mizen Head to Malin Head, 290 miles; the greatest breadth from Blacksod Bay to Down Head, 200 miles; and the least breadth between Donegal and Belfast, 88 miles. Its area is 20,815,111 acres, or 32,524 square miles.

Coasts.—The coast line on the Eastern side is generally level, and free from indentations, presenting but a few harbours throughout. On the North, South, and West, however, the coast becomes rocky, consisting in many cases of bold cliffs of great height. Numerous inlets of irregular shape and considerable magnitude occur throughout, and the harbours thus formed are commodious and generally useful.

Seas.—The Atlantic Ocean is of great depth close to the shore, and violent and frequent storms occur. The rise of the tide in the long, narrow inlets is often great, especially in those that directly face the Atlantic tidal wave. The average rise of the tide is about 24ft., and the depth of the ocean a few miles from the land is 600ft.

Irish Sea.—The depth of this sea is rarely less than 200ft., excepting at the North-Eastern extremity. The tide rises to a great height on the opposite side, but on the Irish coast its average does not exceed 12ft.

\* Divisions.—Ireland consists of thirty-two counties arranged into Provinces. The names of these provinces are—Ulster, Connaught, Leinster, and Munster.

*Ülster.*—Donegal, Londonderry, Antrim, Down, Armagh, Tyrone, Fermanagh, Monaghan, and Cavan.

Connaught.—Leitrim, Roscommon, Sligo, Mayo, and Galway.

Leinster.—Longford, Meath, Louth, Westmeath, King's County, Queen's County, Kildare, Dublin, Wicklow, Wexford, Carlow, Kilkenny.

Munster.—Clare, Tipperary, Waterford, Cork, Limerick, and Kerry.

Headlands.—On the East, Greenore and Carnsore Point in Wexford, Wicklow Head in Wicklow, Howth Head in Dublin, Clogher Head in Louth, St. John's Head and Down Head in Down, Fair Head in Antrim.

On the North.—Bengore Head in Antrim, Malin Head and Bloody Foreland in Donegal.

On the West, Rossan Head in Donegal; Downpatrick Head, Erris Head, and Achill Head in Mayo; Slyne Head in Galway; Loop Head in Clare; Dunmore Head and Bray and Bolus Heads in Kerry; Crow Head and Mizen Head in Cork.

On the South, Cape Clear off Cork; Kinsale Head in Cork; Hook Head and Carnsore Point in Wexford.

<sup>\*</sup> The divisions are given thus early to permit of their after use in referring to position, &c.

The most important of these are Bolus Head, 1,340ft. high; Rossan Head, 1,415ft. high; Achill Head, 2,180ft. high; Mizen Head and Bray Head, 750ft. high; and Fair Head, 600ft. high.

Openings.—On the East, Wexford Haven, Wicklow Harbour, Dublin Bay, Dundalk Bay, Carlingford Bay, Dundrum Bay, Strangford Harbour, and Belfast Lough.

On the North, Lough Foyle, Lough Swilly, and Sheep Haven.

On the West, Donegal Bay, Sligo Bay, Killala Bay, Broad Haven, Blacksod Bay, Clew Bay, Kilkerrin Bay, Galway Bay, Mouth of Shannon River, Dingle Bay, Kenmare River, Bantry Bay, and Dunmanus Bay.

On the South, Kinsale Harbour, Cork Harbour, Youghal Harbour, Dungarvan Harbour and Waterford Harbour.

Of these the most useful as harbours are Belfast Lough and Kingstown Harbour (a part of Dublin Bay), Wexford on the East, Cork Harbour and Waterford Harbour on the South, the Shannon Mouth and Killery Bay on the West, and Sligo Bay on the North. The whole of the other Bays are either exposed to the sea or are difficult of access.

Islands.—On the North, Rathlin, Tory, and Inistrahull Islands. All are small; Rathlin, the largest, being about two square miles in area.

On the West, Achill Island, 90 square miles; Clare, Innisturk, Innisbofin, Arran Islands comprising Inishmore, Inishmaan, and North and South Inniskea, all being scenes of ruined forts; Blasket Islands, and Valentia Island, area 40 square miles.

On the South, Cape Clear and Saltee Islands.

None of the Irish islands are of importance save for their fishing. Most of them are inhabited by fishermen during the fishing season.

Mountains.—Generally Ireland is a level tableland, in the interior about three hundred feet above the sea level. The mountains are found near the coast, and are not connected, but form a series of detached chains. These chains may be grouped as the Wicklow Mountains, the Mourne Mountains, the Mountains of Antrim, the Mountains of Donegal, the Mountains of Tipperary, and the Mountains of Kerry.

The Wicklow Mountains occupy the whole of Wicklow county, and stretch likewise through the county of Carlow and the West of Kildare. The scenery is picturesque, the aspect of the granite rocks being a wild one. More than 20 peaks reach the height of 2,000 feet. Lugnaquilla, the highest, is 3,039 feet high, but the Sugar Loaf (1,700 feet high) is the best known.

The Mourne Mountains spread through the east and south of Down and Armagh They approach very near the coast, giving that portion a series of high cliffs. The chief heights are: Slieve Donard, 2,800 feet; Slieve Bingian, 2,500 feet; and Eagle Mountain, 2,100 feet high.

The Mountains of Antrim, in the county of Antrim, are of less height, the chief peaksbeing—Trostan, 1,810 feet; Agnew's Hill, 1,558 feet; and Dwis, 1,567 feet high.

The Donegal Mountains are heights occupying the whole of Donegal and a great part of Fermanagh and Leitrim. The highest points are Errigal, 2,466 feet; West Dooish, 2,143 feet; and Bluestack, 2,213 feet.

The Tipperary Mountains are ranges connected with the mountains of Kerry, which occupy portions of Tipperary and Waterford. The chief ranges are the Galtee Mountains in Tipperary, with the following heights, Galteemore, 3,015 feet; Knockmeledown Mountains, in Tipperary, 2,598 feet; and the Commeragh Mountains in Waterford, the loftiest peak of which is 2,600 feet high.

The Kerry Mountains are composed of the Macgillicuddy Reeks, with Carntual, 3,404 feet high; the Brandon Hills, 3,127 feet high; and the Mangerton and Dunkerron Mountains, each containing several heights over 2,000 feet.

Lesser groups are the *Connemara Mountains* in Galway, having a height of 2,400 feet at Twelve Pins; the *Slieve Broom* in King's County and Queen's County; and the *Slieve Boughta* and *Slieve Bernagh Mountains* in Galway.

Plains.—The great central tableland is traversed from south-west to north-east by a large plain commencing at the Shannon river and including the Shannon lakes, stretching to Lough Foyle. Another stretches from the Mourne Mountains to the mountains of Wicklow; and a third from the Shannon mouth through the centre of Clare, Galway, and Mayo. These plains have a height of from 100 to 300 feet.

Rivers.—Owing to the position of the watersheds, the most important Irish rivers enter the sea on the west coast. The rivers are numerous, and in most cases navigable for some portion of their course. In the following table the rivers are arranged as follows: I. Rivers flowing east. II. Rivers flowing north. III. Rivers flowing west, and IV. rivers flowing south.

#### RIVERS OF IRELAND.

Div.	River.	Rises.	Enters the Sea.	Length	Area of Basin.
	CI	337* 17 36		Mls.	Square Miles.
(	Slaney Bann	Wicklow Mountains	Wexford Haven	67	730
_	Liffey	Wicklow Mountains, North South Meath	Dublin Bay	60	500
I.	Boyne Athboy Blackwater	North King's County North Meath East Cavan	Drogheda Bay	63	1,046
	Dee	North Meath	Dundalk Bay	27	290
	Lagan		Belfast Lough	35	200
	Bann	South Armagh	Lough Foyle	95	2,300
II.	Foyle  Derg  Finn  Glenelly	South Tyrone		52	1,090
(	MoyShannon	South-west of Sligo Cuileagh Mountain in Cavan	Killala Bay	42	800
111.	Brosna Inny Suck Mulkear Maiji Deel	Lough Ennel, West Meath Lough Sheelin Lough of Flin, West Mayo Keeper Mountain, Tipperary South-east Limerick North Cork		160	4,600
(	Maine	East Kerry	Dingle Bay	38	450
	Bandon Lee	East of Bantry Bay Lough Lug, West Cork	Cork Harbour		260 600
IV·	Blackwater Suir	Borders of Cork and Kerry	Youghal Harbour Waterford Harbour		1,300
	Barrow Nore	North Tipperary Wicklow Mountains Queen's County	Waterford Harbour  WaterfordHarbour	- 0	3,500

Lakes.—The Irish lakes are more numerous and larger than either the English or Scottish lakes. It is estimated that one-fortieth part of I reland consists of lakes or rivers

#### LAKES OF IRELAND.

Lake.	SITUATION.	Length.	Breadth.	Area.	Height above the sea.
	1 S - 11 A 1 . 1 T 1		Sq. Miles	Sq. Miles.	Feat.
Lough Neagh	South Antrim and London- derry	5 1/	10	$153\frac{1}{2}$	48
Lough Erne (Upper). Lough Erne (Lower)	Fermanagh	35	10	56	{ 151 149
Lough Gowna	Fermanagh	5	1		210
Lough Allen	Leitrim	7	3	10	160
Lough Ree	East Roscommon	17	6	41	125
Lough Derg	South Galway	24	10	46	110
Lough Gara	North Roscommon	3	3	6	220
Killarney Lakes— Lough Leane Middle Lake Upper Lake	In Kerry	$\begin{array}{c} 5 \\ 2\frac{1}{2} \\ 1\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$	4 3 4 1 2	} 10	68

Climate.—Ireland has a more humid and a warmer climate than either England or Scotland. This is accounted for by the action of the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulf Stream. The average rain-fall is about 30 inches, whilst the number of rainy days in each year is estimated at 208, which is a greater proportion than in any other European country. The prevailing wind is westerly.

Minerals.—The mineral wealth of Ireland is comparatively small. There is a large quantity of coal, but it is not worked. Iron and lead are found in considerable quantities, and from the latter silver is extracted. Copper ore is found in Wicklow, Kerry, and Cork.

Vegetation.—The soil is extremely rich, but so moist that it is chiefly used for grazing. The same trees as elsewhere in the British islands are found, and many plants that require to be kept in greenhouses in England will flourish in Ireland in the open air.

Zoology.—The animals are the same as those of England. No snakes are found in the Island. The Irish coasts are bountifully supplied with fish, comprising herrings, Pilchards, hake, cod, and ling, whilst in the rivers and lakes salmon, trout, and eel are abundant.

Inhabitants.—The population in 1871 was 5,402,759. The majority of the people are of the Celtic race, but these in the large towns are intermixed with English settlers. The people of Ulster are chiefly descendants of the Scots, who settled in that district during the reign of James I. and subsequently.

Industrial Occupations.—The national occupation of Ireland is grazing. But little of the land is in tillage, the crops in the latter case being potatoes, barley, and oats. The average number of cattle kept is nearly 4,000,000, whilst the sheep are about 500,000 more in number.

The manufactures are few in number, being almost confined to the province of Ulster. The articles manufactured are linen goods at Belfast and Armagh, cotton at Belfast, and woollen cloths at Dublin and in Leinster; lace is also made in Limerick.

The mineral resources are almost unworked. Five-sixths of the coal used is imported from England, though the home supply, properly worked, would be more than sufficient.

Commerce.—Imports: Colonial produce, spirits, beer, wine, coal, and English manufactured goods.

Exports.—Linen goods, lace, and agricultural produce.

The means of communication are turnpike roads and canals aided by railways. The chief canals are (1) The Grand Canal, from Dublin to the Shannon; (2) Royal Canal, from Dublin to the Shannon and further north than The Grand Canal; (3) The Ulster Canal, connecting Lough Erne with Lough Neagh; and (4) The Lagan Canal, from Belfast to Lough Neagh. The chief railways are:

I. A railway connecting Dublin with Galway.

II. A railway connecting Dublin with Limerick and Cork.

III. A railway running from Wexford to Dublin. IV. A railway connecting Dublin with Belfast.

The chief Irish ports are: Cork, Waterford, Belfast, Dublin, and Londonderry.

Divisions and Towns.—The Counties of Ireland have already been given. The following table will show their extent, population, and chief towns:—

COUNTY.	Area in Sq. Miles.	Population.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Donegal	1,865	217,992	Lifford, 570; Raphoe, Ballyshannon.
LONDONDERRY		173,932	Londonderry, 25,000; Coleraine, Port Stewart.
ANTRIM		419,782	Belfast, 175,000; Carrickfergus, Lisburn.
Down	957	277,775	Downpatrick, 3,800; Newry, Holywood.
ARMAGH	513	179,221	Armagh, 8,000; Tanderagee, Lurgan.
TYRONE		215,668	Omagh, 3,500; Strabane, Dungannon.
FERMANAGH	714	92,688	Enniskillen, 5,700; Church Hill, Newtown
		ĺ	Butler.
Monaghan	501	112,785	Monaghan, 4,000; Clogher, Clones.
CAVAN	746	140,555	Cavan, 3,100; Cootehill, Belturbet.
LEITRIM	613	95,324	Carrick-on-Shannon, 1,500; Ballinamore.
Roscommon	950	141,246	Roscommon, 2,700; Castlereagh, Elphin.
Sligo		115,311	Sligo, 10,400; Ballymote, Easky, Riverstown.
Mayo	2,131	245,855	Castlebar, 2,900; Newport, Killala.
GALWAY		248,257	Galway, 13,000; Tuam, Ballinasloe.
Longford	421	64,208	Longford, 4,500; Edgeworthstown.
MEATH	906	94,480	Trim, 2,000; Navan, Summerhill, Kells.
WEST MEATH	709	78,416	Mullingar, 5,400; Athlone.
LOUTH		84,198	Dundalk, 10,000; Drogheda, 14,700; Ardee.
King's County	772	75,781	Tullamore, 4,800; Parsonstown.
QUEEN'S COUNTY	664	77,071	Maryborough, 2,900; Portarlington, Mountrath.
KILDARE	654	84,198	Athy, 4,200; Maynooth, Kildare, Naas.
Dublin	354	405,625	Dublin, 295,000; Kingstown, 11,800; Balbriggan.
Wicklow	781	78,509	Wicklow, 3,500; Bray, Arklow.
Wexford		132,506	Wexford, 12,000; Enniscorthy, New Ross.
Carlow		51,472	Carlow, 8,400; Bagnalstown.
KILKENNY	796	112,302	Kilkenny, 12,600; Callan.
CLARE	1,294	147,994	Ennis, 7,000; Kilrush, Kilkee.
TIPPERARY	1,659	216,210	Clonmel, 11,000; Nenagh, Carrick-on-Suir Tipperary, Cashel, Cahir.
WATERFORD	721	122,825	Waterford, 23,000; Dungarvan, Portlaw.
CORK		516,046	Cork, 78,000; Queenstown, Youghal, Bandon,
	'	1	Fermov, Kinsale.
LIMERICK		191,313	Limerick, 39,000; Newcastle, Rathkeale.
Kerry	1,853	196,014	Tralee, 10,000; Killarney, Dingle.
	1		

## ISLANDS.

Isle of Man.—This island is situated in the Irish Sea, at about an equal distance from England and Ireland, being 30 miles from the coast of Cumberland, and 35 miles from Belfast Lough. It is 33 miles long, and 32 miles broad; its area being 180,000 acres

or 2814 square miles.

The coast line is comparatively broken, the chief openings being Ramsey Bay, Douglas Bay, and Derby Haven on the east coast; Castletown Bay and Port St. Mary on the south; and Port Erin on the west. The most prominent headlands are Point of Ayr on the north; Maughold Head, Laxey Head, Banks Point, Douglas Head, and St. Anne's Head on the east: Langness Head, Scarlet Point, and Spanish Head on the south; and Bradda Head, Point Dalby, Contrary Head, Jurby Point, and Rue Point on the west.

The interior is crossed by a range of hills known as the *Grebah Range*, the highest peak in which—*Snaefell*—is over 2,000 feet in height. Many streams water the island,

which is very productive.

Minerals are found in considerable quantities—the chief being lead ore, silver, copper,

iron, manganese, blende, and slate.

The people have their own laws and law-courts. The governor is chosen by the Sovereign of England, and assisted by the council. The inhabitants elect a body called the House of Keys, and the legislative power is then complete.

The island is divided into six *sheadings* or parishes, viz., Kirk Sheading, Ayr Sheading, Garff Sheading, Middle Sheading, Glenfala Sheading, and Rushen Sheading. The chief

towns are Douglas, Castletown (the capital), Peel, Ramsey, and Laxey.

Anglesea, is a large island lying off the coast of Carnarvon, in Wales, from which it is separated by the Menai Straits. The area is 305 square miles, it being 22 miles long and 20 miles broad. The chief features of the coast are Red Wharf Bay on the north and Carmel Point on the west. The interior of the island is chiefly moorland. Copper and lead are found in large quantities. Anglesea forms a Welsh county, and returns members to the House of Commons. The chief towns are Amlwch, Aberfraw, Newborough, and Llaniflaes. On the south-west of Anglesea is the small island of Holyhead, forming a part of Anglesea county.

Isle of Wight.—This island is situated off the South of Hampshire, from which it is separated by a narrow channel known as Spithead, and further west as the Solent. The width of this channel averages about three miles.

The surface of the island is very diversified, comprising sudden changes of hills and vales. Through the centre runs a range of chalk hills 700 feet high. St. Catherine's

Hill is the highest peak, reaching a height of 830 feet.

The coasts on the south and east are precipitous cliffs, whilst in the sea, near the western extremity, rise four sharp rocks known as the Needles.

The Isle of Wight officially forms part of Hampshire.

The chief towns are Newport, Ryde, Cowes, and Yarmouth.

Channel Islands.—These are the remnants of William the Conqueror's possessions in France. They are situated from ten to thirty miles from the French coast, to which they naturally belong.

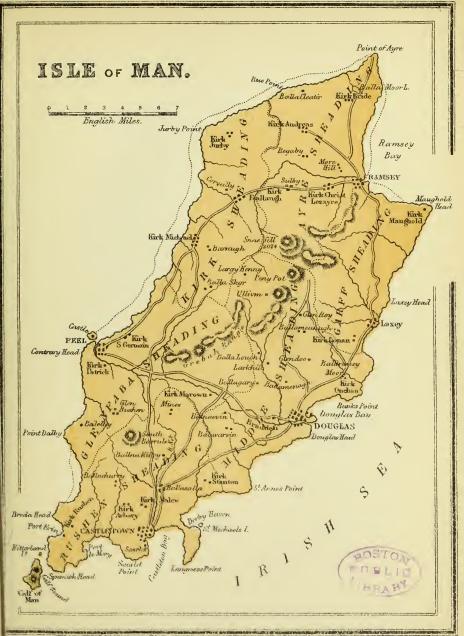
The islands are dependencies of the British Crown, but have their own law courts, &c.,

and are ruled by a Lieutenant-General.

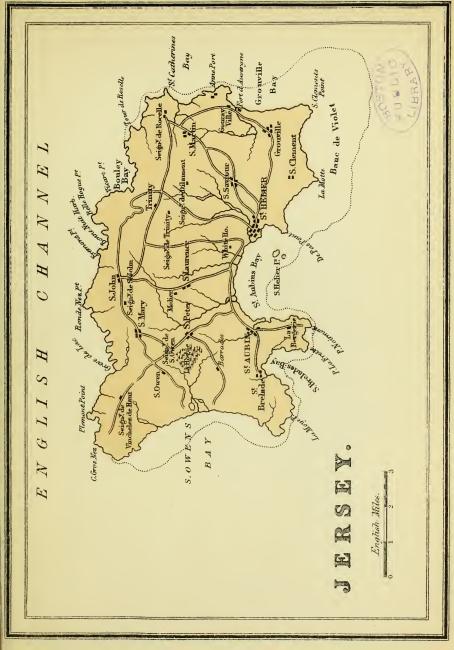
The official language is French. The chief islands are Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney,

Sark, and Herm.

Jersey is the largest and most important island. Its area is 45 square miles, and its population 56,000. The chief towns are St. Helier, and St. Aubin. Jersey has large granite quarries, and iron and manganese are abundant. The fisheries are important, comprising the lobster, oyster, and cod, all of which are largely exported.

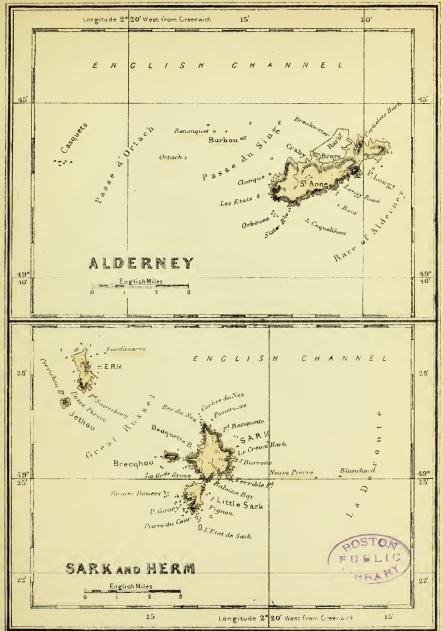








PUBLISHER & EDUCATIONAL BOOKSELLER, EXCELSING BUILDINGS, MIDGEFIELD, MANCHESTER



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Guernsey, the second island in size, has an area of 25 square miles and a population of 30,600. It contains no metals, but like Jersey has considerable agricultural produce, which is exported. There are also small manufactures of cement, brick, cords, paper, and soap. The capital of Guernsey is St. Pierre, on the east coast.

Alderney is a small island having an area of three square miles and a population of 2,700. The chief town is St. Anne. Alderney is ruled by the same governor as Guernsey, and the small islands of Sark and Herm are also dependencies.

These islands have a considerable trade. Their export of produce is large compared with their area, and their apples are to be found in the markets of all southern England during the season. Large quantities of wine and brandy, hemp, tallow, and wheat are also imported, the greater part to be exported again to England.

The people are of a mixed race, speaking a corrupt dialect of English and French. The English Church is the established religion, the islands being included within the see of Winchester.

Bute.—This island is situated in the Firth of Clyde and has an area of about 200 square miles. With the island of Arran and Great and Little Cambray it forms the county of Bute, which has been already referred to.

The Inner Hebrides are those lying near the mainland, and consist of Jura, Islay, Mull, Colonsay, Oronsay Island, Staffa Island, Tiree Island, Coll, Muck, Eigg Island, Rum Island, and Skye. Of these the largest is Skye; area about 600 square miles. This island is covered with mountains, some of which attain the height of 3,000 feet. Mull, the next in size, is also mountainous, having a summit (Ben More) 3,185 feet high. The area of Mull is about 370 square miles.

The Outer Hebrides are further from the mainland, and are comprised of the islands Barra, South Uist, North Uist, and Harris and Lewis. Harris and Lewis form one large island, having an area of about 900 square miles. It has several heights exceeding 2,000 feet. The southern part of the island (Harris) is generally mountainous, whilst the northern consists of moss and moorland, The most northern point is the Butt of Lewis.

The island of St. Kilda lies 42 miles westward of the Hebrides, but is not generally

inhabited.

Orkney Islands.—These islands are situated north of Caithness, from which they are separated by the narrow passage of the Pentland Firth; a passage especially difficult to navigators because of its opposing tides, eddies, and currents. The chief islands are Pomona, Mainland, Hoy, Sanda, Nestra, Roma, North and South Ronaldsha, Shapinsha, and Stronsa. Besides these there are 56 others. Only 29 islands are inhabited. Their united area is 440 square miles and the population 31,272.

The coast has been broken into long peninsulas and deep narrow fiords by the action of the Atlantic storms. One, Long Hope, affords ample and safe protection from the severest weather. The promontories of importance are Borough Ness and Noup Head.

In all but Hoy the surface is generally level, the soil being poor but affording pasturage for cattle and sheep, with a small quantity of tillage land, the crops grown on which are potatoes, barley, oats, and bere. In Hoy the land is mountainous, reaching at Hoy Mountain a height of 1,555 feet.

The climate is much less severe than might be anticipated, owing to the action of the Gulf Stream. The mean winter temperature is 39 degrees, and the mean summer 53 degrees. The rainfall varies from 29 inches in the east to 37 inches in the west.

The Shetland Islands are situated to the North-East of Caithness, from which they are distant about 105 miles. They are more than 100 in number, 34 of them being inhabited. Their combined area is 880 square miles, and their population 31,605. The largest islands are Mainland, Yell, Uist, Fetlar, Bressa, Whalsey, Fair Island, and Foula. The action of the sea has made many inlets and promontories of fantastic shape, the most important being Bressa Sound, in the island of that name, the rendezvous of all fishing boats, and St. Magnus Bay on Mainland. The soil of the whole islands is

poor, and their appearance is barren and bleak; only occasional patches of tillage ground are seen, and these always of small extent. A range of hills runs through the centre of the islands, but in its highest point does not reach more than 1,500ft. The coast is chiefly formed of precipitous cliffs, and the islands are often inaccessible during violent storms.

#### HELIGOLAND.

Situation.—Heligoland is a small island situated opposite the mouth of the river Elbe, from which it is distant about 40 miles. Its shores are washed on all sides by the North Sea.

Extent.—The island is long and narrow; it is rather more than 2½ miles in circumference, but its area is not more than 180 acres, or rather more than one-fourth of a square mile.

Surface.—In such a small surface there is little room for variety, the island consisting of a large red sand-stone rock 271ft. high, and a low sand plain. This sand-stone is easily destroyed by the sea, and Heligoland is fastly disappearing under the waves of the North Sea. To the east of Heligoland lies a sand bank-known as Sandy Island. The two are separated by a channel two-thirds of a mile in width, which rarely exceeds three fathoms in depth.

People and Occupations.—The inhabitants of Heligoland are of Frisian descent, and number nearly 3,000. They are chiefly engaged in fishing, as pilots, or as bathing men during the season, the island being one of the most favourite resorts in the North Sea. The trade is slight, the total value of the imports in 1877 being £55. The exports consist of fish and oysters, ladies' feathers, and muffs. The chief fish are lobsters and haddocks. Heligoland, a large village, has nearly 2,000 inhabitants.

Government.—The English Government appoint a Governor, who, with the assistance of a Council, selected from the inhabitants, rules the island. This form of government was given them in the year 1868. Their income in 1875 was £7,236, whilst the expenditure amounted to £7,548. The village of Heligoland is the seat of government

History.—The island was captured from the Danes in 1807, prior to which it had been of great importance as a receptacle for English goods to be smuggled by the Danes into Germany. From that time, however, its importance decreased, and has never since been worthy of especial note. Although captured in 1807, it was not formally ceded to England until 1814.

# GIBRALTAR.

Situation.— Gibraltar is a rocky peninsula in the South of Spain that terminates in a promontory known as Europa Point. On the northern side it is connected with the province of Andalusia by a low sandy plain, half-a-mile in width, known as the neutral ground. On the other three sides its coasts are washed by the Mediterranean Sea.

Extent.—The peninsula is about three miles long, its breadth varying from one-third to seven-eighths of a mile. Its area is about  $2\frac{1}{4}$  square miles.

Surface.—The northern and eastern sides rise precipitously to the height of 1,400 feet, and approach from those sides is thus made almost an impossibility. From these heights the ground slopes towards the east and west in two or three terraces. The eastern and southern coasts are defended by powerful forts. Part of the fortifications consists of two platforms cut out of the solid rock. Different portions receive the names of Old Mole, King's Bastion, New Mole, Ottara Tower, and Devil's Tower. Natural and artificial means have rendered the place impregnable. The rock is chiefly white marble,



and is often hollowed out into caves. In the recesses of these caves apes are found—the only specimen of the wild monkey in Europe. Westward and at a distance of 5 miles is the Spanish town of Algesiras. The bay lying between these towns is known as Gibraltar Bay. It is very spacious, but insecure for vessels.

Town.—Gibraltar town is situated on the north-west of the peninsula, being almost entirely surrounded by forts. It has a population of 25,432, of whom 6,737 are soldiers. This town is made a depository for large quantities of war material, and being situated at the entrance to the Mediterranean, where the passage is but 15 miles broad, it gives to England the command of the entrance of that sea. The town consists chiefly of one street, nearly a mile in length. Much discontent is caused in Spain by the ease with which goods are smuggled from Gibraltar into that country in consequence of Gibraltar being a free port, and the Spanish customs-duties high. As a legitimate trading post it distributes English goods to places in North Africa, and exports to England fruits and the produce of the adjacent countries. In 1877 the imports received from the United Kingdom amounted to £936,711; the exports for the same period being £270,038.

Climate.—The climate is hot, but much modified by the sea breezes. The whole of the water supply is obtained from the rainfall, there being no springs. A large tank underneath the house acts as a cistern to contain the water until required for use.

Government.—The town is considered a military post, and is under the control of the commander-in-chief, who takes the name of governor. The control of the whole is with the home government. The revenue in 1877 was about £40,000 and the expenditure £41,585.

History.—Gibraltar was taken from the Spaniards by Sir George Rooke in 1704. They had allowed the fortresses to decay, and the able English leader, by a sudden attack, captured it with but little difficulty. Seeing its great strength and advantageous strategical position, the English refitted it, building more powerful forts than it previously possessed. The Spaniards made many attempts to recover the place, but always without success. The most determined was that made in 1779-83, when the allied Spanish and French fleets, aided by a powerful land force, for more than three and a half years besieged the town. As a last effort they had determined on bombarding the town from an immense number of vessels and floating batteries, but in one day these batteries were completely destroyed by red-hot shot fired from the garrison by the command of the governor. In 1842 Gibraltar was constituted a see of the English Church.

# MALTESE ISLANDS.

Situation.—These islands are situated in the Mediterranean Sea, 56 miles south of the eastern extremity of Sicily.

Extent.—Malta, the largest and most important island, has an area of 95 square miles; Gozo has an area of 48 square miles; whilst Comino, the smallest, is only about 14 square miles in area.

Surface.—These islands are generally very rocky, sometimes of considerable height, and almost invariably naturally barren. Stupendous industry has overcome the latter disadvantage, soil having been brought to the islands and laid in level tracts over rocks, and two-thirds of the islands are thus artificially made into gardens, producing excellent crops of wheat, barley, beans, figs, oranges, and cotton, whilst the vine is likewise very successfully cultivated.

The coasts are high cliffs, intersected with bays, which form good harbours. Valetta Bay forms one of the safest harbours in the whole world, and is the central station of the English fleet cruising in the Mediterranean.

In the interior of Gozo there are considerable tracts of pasture-land, which are comparatively level. In Malta the reclaimed land is generally used for grazing cattle. On the two islands more than 25,000 head of live stock subsist.

Climate.—The climate of these islands more resembles that of the North of Africa than any European country. The soil is so fertile under the action of this climate that it readily produces two crops a year. The heat is, however, too great for English constitutions, the average summer temperature being over 80 degrees Fabr. The sirocco prevails during the autumn. Rain is frequent and essential to the water supply, there being no rivers and few springs.

People.—The inhabitants of Malta number 150,000, including the British residents. They are of a mixed race and speak a dialect that closely resembles the Arabic of North Africa. The mercantile classes understand and transact their business in Italian. The natives are a brave, hardy, and industrious people and make good citizens. The religion of the majority is Roman Catholic. Although formerly ill-educated and superstitious, the English rule is gradually raising them in the intellectual scale.

Occupations.—In spite of natural obstacles agriculture flourishes, large tanks being formed to collect the water not otherwise obtainable. Lemons, oranges, figs, and the vine grow in full vigour. Large numbers of bees are kept, the honey obtained being remarkably fine. The fish in the neighbourhood are plentiful, and excellent for food purposes. There is also a large dockyard for repairing damaged vessels that may put in there.

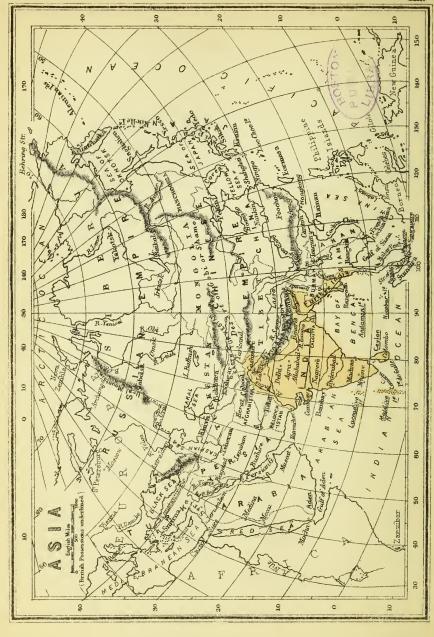
Towns.—The chief town and capital is Valetta. It is built on a tongue of land, which extends into a bay and forms on either side a magnificent harbour. The town is surrounded by numerous forts, and its position is one of great strength; other towns are—Port of St. Paul, the scene of the Apostle's shipwreck; Civita Vecchia, the ancient capital, in the centre; Zeitun, Zahar, Macaba, Melheha, and Monsta, all in Malta, with Zabug, Gurbu, and Nadur, in Gozo.

Commerce, &c.—The great cause of the importance of Malta is its being in the direct route from England to the East through the Suez Canal. Consequently ships call at Malta for provisions, coal, and to make any repairs that may be necessary. The island has besides considerable trade proportionally to its size, exporting large quantities of live stock, fruits, and fancy articles of hard manufacture in which the Maltese excel. In 1876 the value of the imports from the United Kingdom amounted to £72,888, whilst the exports to that country were valued at £63,000.

Government.—This is administered through a governor appointed by the Home authorities, and a council of 18 members. Of these members ten are appointed by the governor, whilst eight are elected by the inhabitants. The governor is president of the council. The number of troops kept at Malta is generally between 7,000 and 8,000 men of all ranks. The amount of the public revenue in 1877 was £172,054, whilst the expenditure during the same year was £170,028.

History.—Malta has been held at one time or another by most of the great nations of the world. It belonged in succession to Phœnicia, Greece, Carthage, and Rome. Later it became a portion of the empire of Charles V. of Germany. He gave the island to the knights of St. John. These retained it till 1798, when it was captured by the French. After two years the English took the island from the French, and have ever since retained possession of it.









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# PART II.

# BRITISH EMPIRE IN ASIA.

## INDIA.

Situation.—India is the more westerly of the two great peninsulas found in the South of Asia. Its northern boundary is the Himalaya Mountains, which separate it from the countries of Turkestan and Tibet. Westward it is bounded by Afghanistan, Beloochistan and the Indian Ocean, and eastward by the Bay of Bengal and British Burmah.

Extent.—The most northerly town is that of Derbend. From that place to Cape Comorin is a distance of 1,900 miles, while the breadth, from Kurachee in Scinde to the eastern extremity of Assam, is the same. The entire area is 1,400,000 square miles, of which 897,004 square miles is under direct British rule, the remaining 502,996 square miles being under the rule of native princes, who pay tribute to England, and acknowledge the suzerainty of the British Sovereign.

Coast.—The great feature of the Indian coast is its great regularity. There are no indentations of importance in more than 2,000 miles. The whole coast line is about 3,000 miles, or about one mile of coast to 500 square miles of area. The only inlets of importance are the mouths of the Ganges, north of the Bay of Bengal, and the Gulfs of Cambay and Cutch in the north of the eastern coast. The only promontory of importance is Cape Comorin, the most southerly point. The coast is remarkably deficient in harbours, and consists generally of a belt of low land, varying from 50 to 150 miles in width, bounded towards the interior by the mountains called the Eastern and Western Ghauts.

Islands.—There are but few islands off the Indian coast. The only large island is that of Ceylon, which is not a part of the Indian empire, but a separate government. The remaining islands are grouped as the Laccadive Islands, the Maldive Islands, and the

Chalos Archipelago.

The Laccadive Islands are a group of seventeen islands situated about 150 miles west of South India. They are all of small size, and of but little importance, their only valuable production being the cocoanut. Coral reefs nearly surround them, protecting them from the violence of storms, that otherwise might be destructive owing to the slight elevation of the islands. The population numbers about 7,000. They are subjects of the native ruler of Cananore, on the adjacent coast. Thus the islands are indirectly a portion of the British Empire.

The Maldive and Chalos Islands are taken with Ceylon.

Mountains.—The mountains of India contain the highest elevations in the world. The ranges are clearly defined and generally distinct, being separated by a series of low and comparatively level plains. Considering the immense size of India, it cannot be called a mountainous country in spite of these extensive ranges. The mountains compuse the Himalaya Mountains, Aravulli Hills, Vindhya Mountains, Sautpoora Mountains, Western Ghauts, Eastern Ghauts, and the Neilgherry Hills.

The Himalaya Mountains form the northern boundary of Hindostan. These hills are a part of the great table land of Tibet, which probably has an average height of 15,000 feet, From this table land the more elevated masses rise till they become the highest

has annual floods. Vessels of considerable size are able to ascend the Indus for 500 miles, whilst with ordinary river boats both the Indus and its tributaries can be navigated through nearly their entire length. The Indus is infested with alligators.

Lakes.—Very few real lakes are to be found in India. Those that are known by that name are often dry during the hot portion of the year.

The chief of these lakes are Lake Chilka, Lake Colair, Lake Pulicat, the Backwaters,

the salt lakes of Thur, and the Runn of Cutch.

Lake Chilka is situated on the coast of Orissa, being 42 miles long and about 15 miles in breadth. It is a salt lake, and a large quantity of salt is obtained from it by evaporation.

Lake Colair lies between the rivers Godavery and Krishna near the coast, and is

formed by their overflow.

Lake Pulicat is situated on the Coromandel coast, and is a salt-water lagoon. It is

30 miles long, and about 12 miles in breadth.

The Backwaters are a series of lagoons on the coast of Malabar, extending over a length of more than 200 miles and being navigable to small craft throughout. They receive numerous short streams from the Western Ghauts.

The Lakes of Thur are neither numerous nor of great extent, and are almost without

exception salt lakes.

The Runn of Cutch is a remarkable portion of India, comprising a district more than 10,000 square miles in area. This large district during the rainy season becomes one vast lake of slight depth; but during the dry season the greater portion becomes a sandy desert, covered with a thick crust of saline compounds, interspersed with shallow lakes.

Climate.—India has of necessity a great variety in the characteristics of its climate, on account both of its great extent and the diversity of its surface. The central and southern districts are within the tropics; but the northern portion is in the temperate zone. The difference in climate from this cause is, however, but little, as shown by the fact of adjoining tracts possessing widely different peculiarities. The real division is that of hills and plains. On the latter the heat is very intense, and during particular periods almost unendurable. The summits of the former are, on the contrary, in many cases clothed with perpetual snow. It may, therefore, be safely asserted that the plains and low grounds endure the full vigour of the tropical sun, the heat being during the hot season excessive; the higher plateaus, such as the Deccan, have a more temperate climate, while the higher slopes of the mountains enjoy a climate less excessive in most instances than that found in the countries of south Europe.

At Calcutta the summer heat averages 86°, and the winter 72°, giving a mean tem-

perature for the year of 82°.

The whole year may be divided into three seasons: The hot season, lasting from the middle of March to the middle of June; the rainy season, from the middle of June to the end of September; and the temperate season, extending from the end of the rainy season to the commencement of the hot season. India is visited by two periodical winds known as the Monsoons. One of these blows from the north-east, and is a constant visitor from the early part of October to the end of April, when it is succeeded by the south-west Monsoon that blows throughout the remainder of the year. This latter wind brings rain to the greater part of India, and during the closing three months of its duration rain falls in large quantities throughout the country, save in a few exceptional places. The fall on the hills is immense. The rivers rise from their beds and overflow their banks, flooding the country for miles around, and carrying destruction to everything opposing their course. Dry beds of rivers are turned into by no means insignificant torrents; and where drought seemed previously to be supreme, the country loses its parched appearance and becomes a verdant green, on which growth is rapid and the crops abundant. This rainy eason is generally introduced by a succession of thunderstorms unequalled out of the tropics. The rainfall is remarkably severe, being probably in excess of 70 inches, although the number of rainy days is small. The greatest annual rainfall is probably that in the Western Ghauts, near the sources of the river Kistna, where it has been estimated to exceed 300 inches, whilst the least is in the central portion of the Desert of Thur. The heaviest rainfall ever observed was one of 600 inches, that quantity having fallen in a small district in Assam. The average rainfall at Calcutta is 81 inches. The south-west Monsoon is a dry wind to the Coromandel Coast, and the north-east Monsoon is a dry

wind to all India save the Coromandel Coast, to which it brings rain. As a consequence this district has a dry season during the south-west Monsoon, and a wet season immediately after the wet season elsewhere. The rainfall during this Monsoon is, however, but slight. Some small portions further south are subjected to two wet seasons, being under the influence of both Monsoons, whilst some districts in the Western Ghauts have nine distinct rain periods, for six of which they are obliged to lay in a store of provisions. Malaria frequently succeeds the rainy season, especially in the coast districts.

The districts in which the greatest heat is suffered are on the Malabar Coast, and within the waste of the Great Desert of Thur. As the excessive heat is often unhealthy to Europeans, sanitary stations have been erected in the temperate portions of the Neilgherry Hills and the Ghauts. The most unhealthy districts are the Tarai and the

Sunderbunds, together with the reed-covered land on the Malabar Coast.

Minerals.—Few countries possess a greater variety of minerals than India, although their extent is comparatively but slight. In many cases, however, they would prove productive if well worked, but as yet capitalists have expended but little money on mining in India. The more important minerals are amethysts, topazes, and rock crystals, found in the regions of the Himalayas; gold, silver, coal, diamonds, rubies, pearls, iron, nitre, borax, salt, tin, copper, chrysolites, garnets, cornelian, jasper, agate, opal, quick-silver, and excellent building stone.

Coal is found within a great belt, stretching from the Gulf of Cutch across the plain of Hindostan to Assam. Several beds within this district are supposed to be inexhaustible. One of the largest worked fields is at Burdwan, from which Calcutta gets

its supply of coal. The Assam fields are also large and productive.

Iron is more or less distributed throughout, but is chiefly worked on or near the coal fields of Burdwan, in Bengal, and the Nerbudda Valley, or in Kumaon and the Carnatic, where there are almost inexhaustible quantities of wood suitable for the process of smelting and manufacture.

Nitre or saltpetre is found in large quantities in the plains of India, but is chiefly worked in Bengal. It is exported, as well as used to a great extent in the manufacture of

gunpowder in India.

Salt is very widely distributed, but the quantity is far from being sufficient to satisfy the requirements of the people, and a heavy tax has to be paid on imported salt.

It is chiefly found on the Coromandel Coast and in the Desert of Thur.

Gold has long been known to exist in India. The Malabar Coast is supposed to have been the Ophir of Scripture. It is at present worked only to a slight degree in South India. This mineral promises, however, to be more largely produced. Sir Adam Clarke, being struck with the character of the district of Wynaad, at the foot of the Neilgherries, induced the Indian government to investigate the reefs, through the medium of Mr. Smith, an Australian mining engineer. This gentleman reports that the area of the district containing auriferous rocks is twenty-five miles long and thirteen miles broad; the reef has ninety outcrops, and its depth is from two to four feet; its productiveness varies from a few pennyweights to two hundred ounces per ton. As the average of the Victoria fields is only from ten to eleven pennyweights per ton, we may fairly assume that in a short time gold mining in India will prove a great attraction for English capital and native industry.

Silver is found in inconsiderable quantities at a few places, the chief being in the

southern part of the peninsula.

Diamonds.—India at one period was famous for her diamonds. They are now unimportant—the chief being those found at Visiapore and in Bundelcund. Formerly Golconda was famous for its diamond polishing and cutting. The less important jewels are found throughout the mountains and the Deccan. They form but a slight industry.

Copper and tin have been found in small quantities, but are not worked to any extent.

Vegetation.—That great diversity of surface which gives to India the characteristics of her climate, in a similar manner supplies her with vegetation unsurpassed in variety and extent in any region.

The plains are in most instances fertile, save in the regions known as the great desert. The fertile land when not under cultivation generally consists of large forests or jungle. The jungle is chiefly comprised of marshy land, covered with a thick growth of grasses and reeds of gigantic size and many feet in height, forming an admirable habitation

for the carnivorous animals and reptiles. With the European advance the jungle is becoming cleared. The forests contain all of the most beautiful tropical plants, which clothe the whole scene with a magnificence never attained in colder climes. The trees are likewise amongst the most useful and beautiful of the Old World, including, besides many others, the bamboo, banana, banyan, ebony, iron wood, many varieties of palms, pineapple, poppy, pepper, mulberry, sandal wood, olive, plum, pear, lime, indigo, tobacco, pomegranate, and walnut. In addition to these many other plants receive cultivation, the chief being coffee, tea, cotton, rice, and other grains. A great variety of the fancy woods are found, and altogether the beauty and utility of the vegetation in the tropical portion

is unsurpassed.

In the higher lands of the hills the productions are those of a more temperate clime, and are very similar to such as are found in the southern portions of Europe. Probably in no part of the world are to be seen such striking changes in vegetation as on the slopes of the Himalayas. At their foot lies the Tarai, one huge jungle; and northward of this is an extensive forest containing the trees already mentioned. These are to be found until the slopes reach the height of 4,000 feet, when they are gradually replaced by the trees of Central Asia and Europe. The tropical trees are not found beyond the height of 6,000 feet; the woods then consisting of oak, birch, chestnut, cypress, pine, sycamore, and clm, with roses, honeysuckles, and rhododendrons. Mounting higher, increased elevation produces the same changes in vegetation as elsewhere are caused by difference in latitude; and after the height of 12,000 feet trees cease to be found, their only representatives being shrubs of various kinds. These continue to the height of perpetual snow, 16,000 feet.

Animals.—India has nearly all the most destructive wild animals, although their number has been greatly reduced of late years, owing chiefly to the reduction in the quantity of jungle. These jungles form almost impenetrable homes for the lion, tiger, hyana, leopard, panther, lynx, and jackal, together with the python—a large non-venomous snake—and the deadly cobra di capello, or spectacle snake. In this portion, also, large numbers of elephants, wild asses, buffaioes, and deer are found, as well as the rhinoceros, camel, and many varieties of the monkey tribe. Vast numbers of the latter are also found on the Himalaya slopes, where likewise the wolf, bear, musk deer, zebra, argal, Tibetian goat, stag, elk, and various species of antelopes abound. In nearly all marshy tracts the crocodiie is abundant, whilst the Malabar Coast and the Indus banks are infested with alligators.

The insects are numerous and troublesome, the chief being the mosquito, white ant,

moth, and locust.

The birds are chiefly remarkable for the gorgeous character of their plumage. They are of but few varieties, and have little merit as songsters. The peacock is a native of India, and there are also eagles, falcons, vultures, hawks, bustards, and a peculiar bird known as the cassowary or secretary bird.

The chief domestic animals are the ox, camel, horse, sheep, goat, and elephant. The latter is remarkably docile and intelligent after it has been carefully trained and tamed.

Population.—The latest official information places the number of the inhabitants of India at 240,000,000. Of these 190,000,000 belong to the portion under direct British rule. The great majority of the people are of Hindoo descent. It appears that this race invaded India from the north-west long previous to the Christian era, and established a kingdom in the portion north of the Deccan. It was several centuries later before they penetrated into the high grounds of the Deccan, subjugating the whole of that kingdom. The Mohammedans subsequently conquered the Hindoos, but their power waned, and many Hindoo states cast out their invaders and established independent kingdoms. The Hindoos are not, as generally spoken of, one people; but they are composed of numerous races, having between them wide differences in manners, language, and appearance. There are about thirty different dialects spoken, nearly the whole of them, however, being derived from the Sanscrit. The natives also vary greatly in colour. Those on the coast and plains are often of a black colour very similar to the negro, whilst the people on the northern hill sides have but little more colour than the inhabitants of the They are of good height, but rather slight. northern shores of the Mediterranean sea. This is probably largely due to the character of their food, little meat being eaten The flesh of the cow and the fowl are prohibited, both being considered sacred. The great majority of the Hindoos practice the religion known as Brahminism, their chief gods being

Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva, whom they worship in a multitude of forms as taught by their priests, known as the Brahmins. These people formerly paid great attention to caste. Although many of its forms are broken, it still retains great power in influencing their conduct. The castes were four in number—the Brahmins, or priests, being the highest, the secondary rank belonged to the Kshetrys or soldiers, the third to the Varsyas, who were either traders or agriculturists, whilst the lowest were the Sudras or labourers. Intermixture of castes by marriage was punished by the loss of caste. This is the most severe punishment a Hindoo can suffer. Those who have by any act forfeited their caste are called Pariahs. Among the remaining portion of the population there are 15,000,000 Mohammedans, chiefly of Arabian, Persian, or Afghan descent. About 150,000 are Parsees, or sun-worshippers, who were driven from Persia by Mohammedan persecution, and who still retain their peculiar religious practices, but otherwise closely resemble Europeans in conduct and dress. The remainder is composed of Europeans, Turks, Syrians, Abyssinians, Chinese, Armenians, and representatives of nearly every Asiatic family, the whole, however, amounting to but a small fraction of the entire population of the Indian empire.

Occupations.—The great majority of the people are engaged in agricultural pursuits. In every part of India cultivation is bestowed on the soil, even in the great desert of Thur. The absence of numerous streams is counteracted by the extensive practice of irrigation. In ordinary seasons the land is fairly productive throughout, the most fertile part being the Ganges valley; but in seasons of drought, a vast extent is almost improductive, and great loss results, often attended with a famine, as the country generally produces the native supplies of food grains. The chief objects of cultivation are rice, and go, opium, cotton plant, sugar cane, mulberry, coffee tree, wheat, barley, maize, millet, bean, and pea.

The Indian manufactures are numerous and important, being distinguished chiefly by their beauty and extreme delicacy, combined with elaborate workmanship. They are chiefly cotton and silk cloths, shawls, handkerchiefs, turbans, saddle-cloths, tapestry, head trappings, articles in wood in a great variety of forms, and numerous other unimportant

objects.

The cotton manufacture is growing in importance, and there is a constant, although slight, diminution in their import of cotton cloth, similar to that made in their own land. The centre of this manufacture is at Dacca; Delhi and Bangalore have also extensive factories. Silk goods are largely made at Umritsir, Tatta, Bangalore, and Bahawulpoor.

Cashmere has long been famous for its shawls, made from the hair of the goats found on the Himalayas. Shawls are also made at Delhi, Rohilcund, and Umritsir. Rohilcund is

also famous for its articles of cuttery, brass works, shawls, and small cabinets.

Mining is not followed to the extent it might be with profit. There are large coal mines at Burdwan and in Assam; iron is worked near the coal fields of Burdwan and the Nerbudda, and at Kumaon, where there are large quantities of wood fuel; gold is slightly worked at Malabar, and diamonds are found in Bundelcund. The recent discoveries of gold will probably stimulate this branch of industry.

Commerce.—The trade of India is already immense, and it is vigorously progressing, so that in a few years it will rank amongst the chief commercial nations in the world. The home trade is the most important, and the one in which the least authentic accounts are obtainable, but its increase is certain. Its great extent may be imagined on considering the requirements of 240,000,000 people.

The interportal trade is also increasing; in 1875 the value of this branch was more

than £50,300,000 in value.

The foreign trade is now very large. The countries chiefly traded with are England, China, and the neighbouring countries of Afghanistan, West Africa, and the islands of the Archipelago. The total value of this branch of the trade in 1875 was £102,586,658, of which the imports were valued at £41,413,390, and the exports at £60,173,268, showing an increase on the exports and imports combined of £1,895,369.

IMPORTS.—As the country grows sufficient quantities of the various articles of food, these are almost confined to articles of manufacture chiefly obtained from the British Islands. The articles, arranged in the order of their value, are cotton goods, hardware and cutlery, raw silk, manufactured silk, ale, wine, spirit, and other liquors, machinery, sugar,

woollen goods, coal, and salt. There are many others of minor importance, but the above

form nearly 80 per cent. of the whole import trade.

EXPORTS.—These chiefly consist of raw produce, although the value of manufactured articles exported is on the increase. In 1875 manufactures amounted to only 11 per cent, the remainder being raw produce. The chief articles, arranged according to their value, are raw cotton, opium, linseed, rape and teel seeds, rice, indigo, jute, tea, coffee, wool, wheat, and raw silk.

The means of internal communication are very deficient, the roads generally being little more than tracks, almost unfit for the use of vehicles. The majority of the rivers are unsuitable for navigation, and there are but few canals.

Large tracts of land are still in jungle, and thus impassable, whilst the Western and

Eastern Ghauts form insurmountable obstacles to a road connecting the coasts.

About 6,000 miles of railway have been opened by private companies, the majority,

however, having Government guarantees for the interest on their money.

The chief commercial trade of the interior is conducted at the great religious fairs held periodically in all the large towns of India, the conveyance of goods being chiefly by the existing railways or caravans.

The external trade engages a large number of vessels. Those entering the ports during

the year 1875 numbered 6,259, whilst those that cleared amounted to 6,201.

The Suez Canal has become a favourite route for ships trading between India and England or America, more than 60 per cent. of the export trade taking that course, so that its being the future road to India is demonstrated by that fact alone.

India is remarkably deficient in good harbours, but there are several important ports, the goods in some cases (as at Madras) having to be landed by means of boats. The chief ports are Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Balasore, Broach, Surat, Kurrachee, Tranquebar, Calicut, Cananore, and Coringa.

Divisions.—The portion of India under direct British rule is divided into eight provinces. Besides these there are the states under native rule, which acknowledge the supremacy of the British Government, and three others which are practically independent. The following table will show the chief facts with regard to the principal of these.

Name.	Extent.	Character.	Population.
Name.  BENGAL ASSAM NORTH-WEST PROVINCES OUDE PUNJAUB CENTRAL PROVINCES MADRAS BOMBAY AJMERE BERAR COORG MYSORE CENTRAL INDIA STATES HYDERABAD HILL STATES RAJPOOTANA CASHMERE NEPAUL	158,600 53,860 81,400 24,000 104,980 84,970 124,500 124,460 2,800 17,630 2,000 29,325 88,800 80,000 7,600 128,126 79,784 50,000	Character.  Under direct British rule.  "" "" "" "" "" "" Native States under British Administration. "" "" Native Feudatory States. "" "" Native Independent States.	60,596,000 4,132,000 30,781,300 11,220,300 17,611,500 8,201,500 30,203,000 16,350,000 2,231,600 168,300 5,055,400 8,360,571 9,000,000 126,000 9,261,607 1,587,000 1,000,000
Sikim Bhootan	$2,500 \\ 23,000$	22	100,000

Bengal.—This province includes the lower course of the Ganges and Burrampootra, extending as far south as the Mahanuddy valley, and northward to Nepaul. It contains

some of the most fertile land in India, and rice, wheat, maize, opium, tobacco, indigo, jute, dates, sugar, tea, and cotton are extensively cultivated. A large quantity of coal is raised, and iron is largely worked near the coal fields. The branches of the Ganges' mouth make access to the various parts easy, and this province contains some of the largest Indian towns. It has a large extent of forest and jungle. Amongst the latter may be classed the Sunderburds, the most unhealthy district in India, and numerously inhabited by wild animals.

The chief town is Calcutta (800,000), on the Hooghly, the most important city of India, having a large citadel known as Fort William. Scrampore, on the opposite bank of the Hooghly, is an important port. The other towns are Hooghly, Moorshedabad, Canning Town, Dacca, Patna, Behar, Plassey, Orissee, and Pooree. The town of Darjeeling, on the north-west of Bengal, is used by the Indian Government as a sanitary station, and Gaya

is celebrated as a place of pilgrimage.

Assam.—This province lies in the valley of the Burrampootra River, and is chiefly comprised of forest and jungle, it being but very thinly inhabited. The surface is generally flat and uninteresting. Its jungles form the home of the majority of the Indian animals. It is comparatively rich in minerals, the chief being gold dust, coal, iron, limestone, and amber. The climate is strictly tropical, the rainy season lasting nearly six months. The heat is, however, more temperate than that of Bengal, and, consequently, more suitable to Europeans. The chief productions are tea, caffee, potatoes and rice, whilst in the forests are found the caoutchou or india-rubber tree, areca palm, and numerous gum trees.

The only town of importance is Gowahatti, the capital, which is also the centre of the tea district. The other places are Goalpara, Sudiyah, Dibroogur, and Chimpoonje. The latter place is notorious for the heavy rainfall, which averages annually nearly 600 inches. In the south of Assam are the districts of Silhet, Tipperah, and Cuchar. The chief town

in these districts is Chittagong.

NORTH-WEST PROVINCES.—These consist of the districts of Agra, Allahabad, Benares, Meerut, Rohilcund, Kumaon, and Gurwhal. These united form one governmental province, stretching from the western part of Bengal along the Ganges' basin to the hills. It is chiefly a vast fertile plain in a good state of cultivation; the districts of Kumaon and Gurwhal are, however, mountainous. The majority of the people are agriculturists, the chief objects of cultivation being tea, cotton, indigo, opium, rice, wheat, and other grains, and sugar. The mulberry tree is cultivated for the silk worm, and coal is found in Kumaon. The chief town of Kumaon is Bareilly, and of Gurwhal, Almora. The chief towns of the other districts have the same names as the districts. Benares (190,000) on the Ganges is the most holy city in India. A great number of rajahs have palaces within its boundaries. Allahabad (110,000) is a favourite spot for bathing on account of benefits believed to be derived from the water. It is the capital of the North West Provinces. Cawnpore (108,000) is a large military station. Meerut is the site of the commencement of the Indian mutiny, and Mirzapoor is a great cotton town. The other important towns are Hurdwar, Ajmere, and Bhurtpoor.

OUDE.—This is a district lying north of the North West Provinces, and is bounded northward by Nepaul. The soil is very fertile, the country being within the Ganges' basin, and there are large quantities of wheat, barley, sugar, rice, indigo, tobacco, and opium grown. The country is fairly level, but being near the hills a large quantity of rain falls, and some of the land is swampy, and, consequently, particularly suited to the cultivation of rice. The climate is considered unhealthy for Europeans. The chief towns are Lucknow (300,000), the capital, on the Goomtee, Fyzabad, Roy Bareilly, and Oude, the former capital. Lucknow has been rendered famous by its siege in 1857, when it was twice relieved—first by General Havelock, and later by Sir Colin Campbell.

PUNJAUB.—This province lies between the River Jumna and Afghanistan. It is watered by the five rivers that form the Indus; but it is less generally productive than the Ganges' valley, although the land near the banks of the rivers is very fertile. Only one-third of the land is cultivated, the crops being comprised of wheat, bavley, rice, cotton, sugar, and tea. A range of hills, known as the Salt Hills, lies in the north-western part. This Province has three divisions: Punjaub, Delhi, Sirhind. The chief towns are Lahore,

Umritsir, Delhi, Mooltan, Ferozepoor, Loodiana, Simla, Sobraon, Chillianwallah, Guzerat, and Peshawur. The famous Khyber Pass is on the road from the latter town to Cabul. Umritsir and Delhi are the centres of important manufactures.

Central Provinces.—A large area combining several small states—the chief of which are Nagpore, Saugor, and Sumbulpore—were united under this name in 1862. This large district contains a varied surface, the whole being elevated, and the centre and east covered with forests or thick undergrowth, and but thinly inhabited. The climate is very hot and dry, and the soil in the valleys between the high plateaus of the western portion is remarkably fertile. The produce is chiefly cotton, wheat, rice, and sugar. Nagpore has great mineral wealth, coal, iron, and manyanese being found in the Sautpoora Hills, whilst diamonds were found formerly in Wyraghur. The chief town is Nagpore, which possesses considerable manufactories. The other towns are Jubbulpoor, Saugor, and Sumbulpore.

Madras.—The district in the south and east of the peninsula forms this province. It has a climate unsuitable to Europeans, being excessively hot. It contains the districts of the Circars, Carnatic, and Malabar. The province has large forests of valuable woods, and a large portion of the coast land is very productive. The chief objects of cultivation are cotton, indigo, sugar, tobacco, rice, and other grains, and chinchona (quinine), whilst Malabar grows pepper, cocoa nuts, betel nuts, and ginger.

The chief towns are Masulipatam, Coringa, and Chicagole (in Circars), Madras, Arcot, Tranquebar, Trichinopoly, Tanjore, Salem, and Coimbatoor in the Carnatic, and Calicut, Cananore, and Tellicherry in Malabar. Madras is the capital of the Presidency, and is an

important port, although it has no harbour.

BOMBAY.—This province is situated on the north-west coast, and includes Bombay and Scinde within its boundaries. The climate is temperate, and the atmosphere healthy, although the coast district is moist. The soil is productive, but not equal to the Ganges' basin. The chief objects of cultivation are cotton, dates, rice, sugar, cocoa nuts, indigo, mulberry tree, and tobacco. Bombay (816,000) is the capital and most important town. Surat, Ahmedabad, Surat Poonah, Ahmednuggur, Beejapoor, and Broach are the other towns, whilst Hydrabad, Kurrachee, Tattee, and Meanee are the chief towns of Scinde.

AJMERE is a small district in the centre of Rajpootana, its government being administered by British officials. The chief towns are Ajmere, Naisarabad, and Nyamnugga.

Berar is a district on the south-west of the Central Province. It is well watered and very productive, having the best cotton fields in India. It has no manufactures, but iron is abundant. Alkalah, Ellichpoor, and Cawelghur are the chief towns.

Coord is a very small district in the south-west of Mysore, and is of no manufacturing, mining, or agricultural importance. The chief town is Merkara.

Mysore, in the southern part of India, is surrounded by the province of Madras. It consists of an elevated plateau, and consequently enjoys a temperate climate, although a great portion of it is unhealthy. It has most of the ordinary Indian productions, as well as gold, iron, and copper, and the cypress, apple and peach trees. The chief towns are Mysore, Seringapatam, Bangalore, Belloor, and Skimloga.

In the south of the peninsula are the native states of Cochin and Travancore, both of which are rich in their vegetable productions, which contain pepper, teak, sandal wood,

cocoanut, betel nut, and cassia.

CENTRAL INDIA.—The states in this portion formerly comprised the Mahratta Kingdom, which since 1761 has been completely broken up by the British, and now forms a large number of states, the chief of which are Indore, Kolapore, Gwalior, Bhopaul, Bundelcund, Guzerat, and Cutch.

Indore extends along the middle of the Nerbudda, embracing a part of the plateau of Malwa. It is celebrated for its opium. The state has an area of about 8,000 square

miles. The chief town is Indore.

Gwalior extends from Cambay to the river Jumna, having an area of 34,000 square miles. It is remarkably suited for the growth of cotton. The chief towns are Gwalior, Oojein, and Rejgarh.

Bhopaul—chief town Bhopaul, is situated east of Indore.

Bundelcund consists of several minor states stretching along the Jumna river.

The level portion is very productive, the ordinary grains, &c., being cultivated.

Guzerut includes the peninsula between Cutch and Cambay, and is ruled by a sovereign called the Guicowar. The interior is hilly, and the whole country is badly supplied with water, but the land produces good crops of indigo, tobacco, rice, cotton, and corn. The chief town is Baroda the capital, and the others are Cambay, Diu, and Nowanugger.

Cutch is the peninsula lying between the Runn and the Gulf of Cutch, and has an area of 7,000 square miles. The soil is bad, but cotton is grown to a slight extent. A large number of domestic animals (horse, cow, goat, sheep, and ass) are kept. The chief

town is Bhooj. Besides this town the only other of importance is Mandivee.

HYDERABAD.—This district occupies the central part of the Indian Peninsula, being entirely within the Deccan. It is watered by the Godavery and Kristna with their numerous tributaries. Although scorched during the hot season, the land produces fine crops of cotton, indigo, rice, and wheat. The chief towns are Hyderabad, Beder, Aurungabad, and Assaye. The title of the ruler is the Nizam.

RAJPOOTANA.—This name is given to the large territory extending from Scinde to the river Jumna. It is divided into a large number of petty States, in which the ruling class belong to a race known as the Rajpoots. The most important of these States are Oodeypoor, Mewar, Serohee, Joudpoor, Jessulmere, Bekanere, Jeypore, and Kotah—the chief town of each State being of the same name.

The Hill States are territories amongst the Himalaya valleys. They are nineteen in number, but chiefly very small. The most important are Bussahir, Sirmoor, Koonawur, and Gurwhal.

CASHMERE includes the valley of the same name north of the Punjaub. This valley lies within the Himalayas, and is well watered and remarkably fertile, large quantities of fruits and flowers being grown in it. The shawls made from the hair of the Cashmere goat have long been famous. Serinugger, on the Jhelum, is the capital, whilst further up the river is Islamabad. North of Cashmere is a mountainous district called Ladakh, ruled by a rajah. The chief towns are Ley and Skardo.

NEPAUL extends along the southern slopes of the Himalayas to the north of Bengal. It is very mountainous, and includes within its borders some of the highest peaks in the world. The valleys are very fertile. Being on the Himalaya slopes, Nepaul presents a great variety of vegetable life. Khatamandoo is the chief town; the town of Ghoorka is in the west.

Sikhim is a small State lying between Nepaul and Bhootan, and is likewise on the Himalaya slopes. The only town of any size is Tumlong.

BHOOTAN occupies the Himalaya slopes eastward of Sikhim and Nepaul. population is very small, and the government is in a very disorganised condition. The chief towns are Tassisudon and Punakha. The inhabitants of all the hill States are a more wiry and energetic race than the Hindoos. The Ghoorkas are noted for their bravery.

Government.—Each of the British Provinces has its own civil government, by whom all local affairs are managed. Madras, Bombay, and Bengal have also legislative assemblies. The Assembly of Bengal creates laws for all India save Madras and Bombay. At the head of each Province is a Governor and a Lieutenant-Governor, or Commissioner. The Viceroy, or Governor-General, is at the head of affairs. He is assisted by a Council of six members and the Commander-in-Chief. These form the Government of India, and have supervision over all the Provinces and Dependencies. Their work is arranged under six heads-Finance, Home Affairs, Foreign Affairs, Military, Public Works, and Revenue. Each of these is placed under the control of a member of the Council, who has the power to deal with matters of little import; all great matters have to be considered by the Council. Assisted by a Legislative Council of twelve members, they have the power of passing bills affecting the whole Empire on matters of great importance. The Provincial Governments manage all provincial receipts and expenditures, but the Imperial expenditure is conducted by this Council. Madras and Bombay pay their own military forces.

The revenue of India during the year 1876-7 amounted to £55,995,785, whilst the expenditure was £58,178,563, being an excess of expenditure over income of £2,182,778. The Indian debt on the 31st of March, 1876, amounted to £122,481,757, paying an interest of £5,315,062.

The army of India amounts to 190,000 men, of whom 65,000 are Europeans, and 125,000 natives. There is also a police force numbering 190,000 men, these being officered

by Europeans.

The home power is delegated to a "Secretary of State for India," who is a member of the British Cabinet. He is assisted by a Council of fifteen members, but is not necessarily controlled by their decisions. Like every other British Minister he is responsible to the Houses of Parliament. Her Majesty the Queen is Empress of India.

History.—As early as 1600 a company was formed, by the consent of Queen Elizabeth, known as the East India Company. They founded their first factory in 1611 at Surat, following it by others at Fort St. George (Madras) in 1639, Bombay in 1668, and

Fort William (Calcutta) in 1696, the latter being purchased from Aliverdi Khan.

The French, Portuguese, and Danish had also established trading stations in different parts of India, and as each desired the entire trade of the Empire, the rival factions came into collision in 1746. Dupleix, the French governor, conceived the idea of a French Empire in India, and if properly supported at home he might have succeeded. The English met with reverses in the early days of the contest, but Clive soon retrieved their fortunes by defending Arcot against great odds in 1751, and in 1761 crushed the French in India by the capture of Pondicherry, their central establishment.

Surajah Dowlah's tragedy at Calcutta brought Clive's vengeance on him, and the

battle of Plassey (1756) gave the English virtual control over Bengal and Behar.

Warren Hastings became Governor-General in 1774, and from the beginning increased the power of the Company. In 1780 the Carnatic was invaded by Hyder Ali and his allies, but Hastings succeeded in administering a severe defeat, saving British India.

During the control of the Marquis of Wellesley the Company were embroiled in several wars, in many of which Sir A. Wellesley (the Duke of Wellington of later years) took a conspicuous part. In the Mahratta wars that leader completely broke up the Mahratta Empire, and did not fail to enlarge the domains of his employers.

Peshawur was added to Bombay in 1818, and that territory then attained its present

extent.

The first Punjaub war broke out in 1844, and lasted till 1847, during which severely-contested battles were fought at Feroze-Shah, Aliwal, and Sobraon. This led to the annexation of a portion called the Jullundah Doab. In 1847 the second Punjaub war ensued, but the Company's forces gained the battles of Chillianwallah and Guzerat, and, having thus vanquished their foes, annexed the whole of the Punjaub in 1849.

A war with Burmah ended in the annexation of Pegu in 1852, and in 1854 Oude fell

into the Company's hands. It also obtained Tanjore and Nagpore.

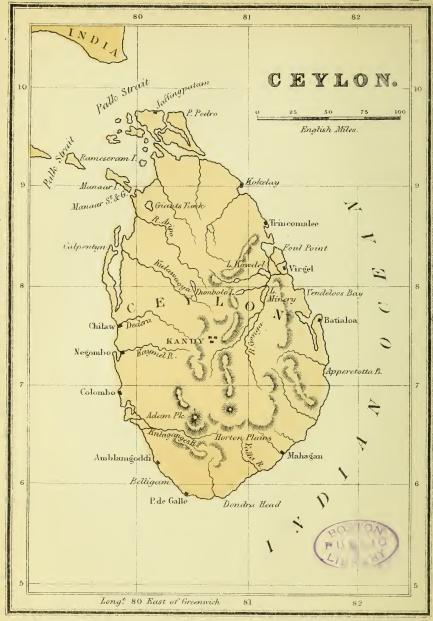
The whole of the annexations after 1847 were made by Lord Dalhousie, who returned to England in 1856. Almost immediately after his departure the great Indian Mutiny broke out at Meerut. The Sepoys had become disaffected, it is supposed by intrigue, and rebelled and murdered their officers. Delhi was held for months by forty thousand rebels. Dreadful massacres occurred, the most fearful being that at Cawnpore. The English troops were soon on the scene. Delhi was captured, Lucknow relieved, and battles were fought in Central India in which the atrocities committed on the English were fully revenged.

The ultimate result of this mutiny was the transfer of the government of India from the East India Company to the Crown by a proclamation of Her Majesty, dated November 1, 1858. Since that date India has made rapid advances in commerce, education, and liberty. No wars of importance have occurred, the only great enemy to be met having been the famine of 1875 and the more severe one of 1876-7. For relieving the

latter more than £750,000 were collected in England.

The Prince of Wales visited India in 1875 and was everywhere most loyally received. In 1877 Her Majesty the Queen formally assumed the title of Empress of India.





#### CEYLON.

Situation.—Ceylon is a large pear-shaped island, situated south-east of India, from which it is separated by a passage known as Palks Straits on the north-west and by the Straits of Manaar on the north.

Extent.—Measured from the most northerly to the most southerly point, the length is 270 miles, while its greatest breadth is 150 miles. In the northern portion the island tapers almost to a point. The area is about 24,700 square miles, or four-fifths the size of Scotland.

Surface.—The coast is very regular in shape, possessing few indentations or promontories. It contains, however, many safe harbours, the best known of which are Trincomalee Bay, Galle Harbour, and Negombo Bay. Others nearly equal are Kokelay Bay and Vendeloos Bay. The most conspicuous of the few promontories are the Point Pedro on the north, Foul Point on the east, and Dondra Head on the south.

The straits between India and the north-west of Ceylon are crossed by a series of sand banks known as Adam's Steps. The two most important of these are called Manaar Island and Rameseeran Island. Between the island of Manaar and Ceylon occurs the

Strait of Manaar.

The central, eastern, and southern portions of the island are occupied by an elevated range of hills forming a plateau nearly 6,000 feet in height. The chief heights are Pedrotallagalla (8,266 feet), and Adam's Peak (7,420). The plateau of Newera Ellia has an elevation of 6,350 feet. This plain is overlooked by the mountain Pedrotallagalla.

The whole of the northern and western portions of the island consist of a large alluvial plain, watered by numerous rivers, as well as lakes of considerable size. In addition to this large tract is a belt of low fertile land between the mountains of the east and south and the coast. This belt varies in width from five to thirty-five miles. The portion

south of the hills is known as Horton Plains.

None of the Ceylon rivers are of great length, as they nearly all rise in the central heights. Being of small size, navigation on them, save by very small boats, is impracticable. The great number of the small streams makes Ceylon an extremely well-watered country. The chief rivers are—Gonga and Appertotta, flowing east; Yalla, flowing south; and the Kuluganges, Kaymel, Dedera, Kulawaoya, and Aripo flowing west. Of these the longest are the Gonga, 150 miles; the Kulawaoya, 110 miles; and the Aripo, 95 miles.

The lakes are generally expansions of these rivers or the sources of some tributary. With the River Gonga, three large lakes are connected—Lake Minery, Lake Kowdel, and Dumbolo Lake. In the north-east is a large lake, known as the Giant's Tank. Lake Minery (60 square miles), and Lake Kowdel (50 square miles), are the largest lakes in

Ceylon.

Connected with the coast are several large lagoons, of which the chief are those at the mouths of the Kuluwaoya, Kuluganges, and Gonga rivers, and the lagoon near Battialoa. These are all navigable and are of great use in effecting transport.

The whole island is remarkable for its beautiful scenery.

Climate.—Although situated nearer the equator than the mainland, Ceylon enjoys a much more temperate climate than the latter, owing, probably, to the fact that no portion of it is more than 70 miles from the modifying influence of the ocean. Like all countries in South Asia, its climate is to a great degree regulated by the north-east and south-west monsoons, the former of which blows from November to February, and the latter from May to October. The interval between the two periodical winds is generally occupied by variable winds from all quarters. The eastern coast is much hotter and drier than any other portion. The most severe storms are those felt on the high plateau of Newera Ellia, where the mean winter temperature is as low as 35, and the summer 80 degrees. Elsewhere but little variation occurs. At Trincomalee the winter temperature averages 77°, and the summer 84°, whilst at Colombo the winter average is 79°, and the summer 84°. The annual rainfall is great, the heaviest being on the Central Plateaus. The climate of Ceylon is more suitable to Europeans than the greater part of India, and there are

numerous British residents on the island. The heights of Newera Ellia are being used as sauitary stations for recruiting the health of Europeans, who have impaired it by residence in the coast districts.

**Productions.**—Ceylon has for many centuries been famous for its natural wealth, and is frequently spoken of as the jewel of the eastern seas. The land is abundantly supplied with numerous minerals, the most important of which are ruby, amethyst, topaz, sapphire, cat's-eye, and beryl, and gold, silver, iron, nitre, plumbago, alum, and salt.

In the straits of Manaar is an important pearl fishery, which for many years was the largest in the world. It has now lost a great portion of its importance through partial

failure in the fishery, but is still of considerable value.

The soil being fertile, the land is nearly covered with vegetation. The cultivation of numerous plants occupies large areas, and immense forests occur both on the plains and in the valleys lying between the ranges of hills. These forests contain large quantities of teak wood, ebony, satin wood, rosewood, sandal wood, sapan wood, iron wood, jack, and nearly all the other trees found in the southern part of Asia. In addition to these, two valuable trees occur which are not found in India. These are the cinnamon laurel and the cocoanut. No portion of the latter is wasted, some use being found for every part of it.

Most of the animals found in India occur in Ceylon. The peacock adds additional lustre to its beauty on the mainland, and the elephants are more brave and intelligent. Most of the war elephants are obtained from Ceylon. A detailed list of the animals was

given in the geography of India.

People.—In 1871 the population of Ceylon numbered 2,405,287. These were chiefly composed of one race known as the Cingalese, descendants of emigrants from the valley of the Ganges, who conquered Ceylon from its original inhabitants many centuries ago. A considerable number of Hindoos have of late years settled in the northern and northeastern portions, whilst Moors and Mohammedans are found throughout. There are also about 5,000 whites in the island. The great majority of the people are followers of the Buddhist religion, but Christianity is spreading, chiefly by the aid of missionaries. Colombo forms the see of a colonial bishopric of the English Church. In the forests are found in small numbers a savage degraded race known as the Veddas. These are supposed to be the real aborigines of this island.

Occupations.—The Cingalese are chiefly agriculturists. They have been largely helped by English capital, and aided by the fertility of the soil and the rarity of its native productions, the island is in a flourishing condition. The chief articles cultivated are the cinnamon laurel, one of the most valuable of the native plants that grows to perfection in this island; the cocoanut tree, which is scarcely less valuable from the multiplicity of its uses; coffee, for which the island is famous; tea, sugar, cotton, rice, and other grains, and chincona (quinine). The results have proved so satisfactory, that large amounts of English capital are being drawn to the island for investment in the growth of these articles. The island is remarkably aided by its situation and climate for these purposes, and possesses the other requisite of fertile soil. On the slopes of the hills in the interior the coffee is said to attain a state of perfection. The mining industry receives but little attention, although the minerals are very important.

Commerce.—In former days Ceylon had a very large external trade, amounting to a far greater value than the present, although that is by no means unimportant. In 1877 the value of the goods imported from the British Islands amounted to £1,105,784, being chiefly comprised of cotton goods, iron, hardware, machinery, beer, spirits, and woollen goods. During the same year the value of the exports was £4,498,579, consisting chiefly of agricultural produce, such as coffee, cocoa, cinnamon, and other spices. In addition to this trade with the British Islands, Ceylon carries on a considerable trade with India and the countries on the adjacent mainland. The chief ports are Colombo, Trincomalee, and Point de Galle.

Divisions and Towns.—Ceylon is divided into five provinces, their names showing their situation, viz., Northern, Eastern, Western, Southern, and Central Provinces.

The chief town is Colombo, situated on the western side of the island; it is the most important seaport and the seat of government. Another important port is Trincomalee





on the eastern side, and Point de Galle in the south is the chief packet station. Kandy in the interior was formerly the capital of the island. Other towns are Kokelay, Virgel, Batalóa, Mahagan, Amblamgoddi, Negombo, and Chilaw, all on or near the sea coast.

Government.—Ceylon is in no way connected with the Government of India, being a crown colony with an entirely distinct administration.

A Governor is at the head of affairs, aided by an Executive Council of five members. For all purposes of legislation a council of fifteen members, of whom five belong to the Executive Council, meet and enact such laws as they may deem essential or advisable. The consent of the Governor, is absolutely necessary before any act can become law.

The revenue during the year 1877 amounted to £1,596,205, and during the same period the expenditure incurred was £1,437,266, leaving a balance of £158,939. At the close of the year 1876 the amount of the public debt had reached £784,375.

History.—At no period has Ceylon formed a portion of the dominions under the control of the East India Company. It was first colonised by the Portuguese at an early period, and later was occupied by the Dutch, from whom it was captured by the English during the wars of 1796. The native king was not dethroned, and he continued to rule the island until 1815, when he was deposed, and the country was formally annexed to Great Britain. Since that time Ceylon has made great progress in the arts of civilisation, in education, and agriculture, and its commercial relations have been greatly augmented, although, even now, they are far inferior in magnitude to the vast traffic of the land under the auspices of the Arabian merchants during the fifteenth century. There have been no great struggles for supremacy like those in India; but the whole country has willingly submitted to English rule, and the benefits thereby derived are apparent in the improved social condition of the people.

MALDIVE ISLANDS.—These Islands are situated in the Indian Ocean south-west of Hindostan. They stretch through a length of 500 miles from north to south, and are arranged in a great number of circular groups called atolls. These groups are separated by passages of considerable depth, but in the centre of each group is a lagoon with a dep h of not more than 15 or 20 fathoms. The whole of the islands are composed of coral, and there is no point 20 feet above the level of the sea. Like the Island of Ceylon these islands have the cocoanut palm—their most valuable production. The inhabitants are chiefly Mohammedans, and are ruled by a native sovereign, who is required to render annual homage to the Governor of Ceylon.

CHACOS ARCHIPELAGO is formed by a large number of coral islands lying south of the Maldive Islands, the largest of which is Diego Garcia, fifteen miles long. The islands are covered with the cocoanut palm, and cotton is grown; the other produce being pigs, poultry and fruit.

# BRITISH BURMAH.

Situation.—British Burmah is a long strip of land stretching along the eastern shores of the Bay of Bengal, being bounded on the north by the Province of Assam, on the east by the native kingdoms of Burmah and Siam, and on the south by the Malay Peninsula.

Extent.—The distance from the extreme north to the most southerly point is about 1,000 miles. The greatest breadth is 320 miles, but in the southern extremity the breadth is extremely little. The area of the whole province is 88,560 square miles.

Coast.—As in most countries in Asia, the coast line is but little indented, the only openings of importance being Akyab Bay and the Irrawaddy mouths. Cape Negrais is the only prominent headland. The length of coast is more than 1,500 miles, or one mile of coast to 58 miles of area.

Islands.—The chief islands are the Ramree Islands, off the northern portion of the province; the Andaman Islands, south of Cape Negrais; the Nicobar Islands, south of the Andaman Islands; and the Mergui Islands, off the southern shores of the province.

The Ramree and the Mergui Islands are a number of coral islands of little importance; but the Andaman and Nicobar groups are more valuable and extensive.

Natural Features.—The interior, throughout the entire length, is occupied by ranges of hills of comparatively little breadth. These hills run nearly parallel with the coast, from which they are separated by a plain of great fertility. The rivers are numerous and large, the chief being the Kuladyne, Irrawaddy, Sitang, and Saluen or Martaban. The Irrawaddy forms a large delta, breaking up into numerous branches, many of which are themselves equal in magnitude to large rivers. It has a tributary known as the Pegu River. Neither the Irrawaddy nor the Martaban rises in British Burmah.

The climate is strictly tropical, but is more suitable for Europeans than India. The rainfall is in several places 190 inches annually. The coast districts are often swampy, and malaria is prevalent after the rainy season. The rainy season generally floods the rivers, inundating large tracts. The people in the plains have frequently to erect their houses on piles to prevent their inundation. The whole province is subject to the influence of the south-west monsoon, like the Malabar coast of India.

The most valuable productions are those of the forests, which possess most of the valuable trees found in the East. The mineral wealth is great, comprising coal, tin, copper, limestone, gold, ruby, amethyst, sapphire, and amber. The animals are also numerous and varied, those which happen to be of a white colour being greatly esteemed by the natives.

People.—The population of this district is very thin, there being only 2,748,000 people, or 34 to the square mile. The inhabitants are descendants of Hindoos from the north-east of Hindoosan, but they have very little resemblance to that race, being more like the Mongols or Chinese. They are of short stature, but strong, active, and brave. Their features are square, and their eyes small and elongated. Unlike most savage nations, they have never been noted for malignity and cruelty, thus presenting a great contrast to their neighbours the Malays. The people are almost entirely followers of Buddhism.

Agriculture forms the chief occupation of the people, and cotton, rice, tobacco, and the sugar cane are successfully cultivated. Mining is followed in a few districts, but to no

great extent.

The commercial relations are less than those of the other Indian possessions, although the value of its productions make their increase comparatively easy. They are chiefly the import of cotton goods and other manufactured articles, and the export of produce, the chief being teak wood, cocoa, cotton, gamboge, resin, spices, grains, and fruits.

Communication is chiefly effected by means of the rivers. The roads are but mere tracks, and unfit for the use of carriages. The fairs are the great means of intercourse.

The chief ports for the foreign trade are Rangoon on one of the Irrawaddy mouths, and Martabon and Moulmein on the opposite sides of the estuary of the Martabon river.

Divisions.—British Burmah consists of three divisions occupying the northern,

central, and southern portions of the province, and known as Aracan, Pegu, and the

Tenaserrim provinces.

ARACAN.—This region lies between the Burmese Mountains and the Bay of Bengal, being bounded on the north by the province of Assam, on the east by Burmah, and on the south by the district of Pegu. The whole of its inland frontier is formed by the Yomodong Mountains. Its length is 360 miles, and its area 17,780 square miles. Off the coast lie the Ramree Islands. There are numerous creeks and inlets, but none save Akyab Bay are of any importance. The rivers are numerous, but the only large one is the Kuladyne. The land near the banks of the rivers is generally swampy, and consequently extremely unhealthy although admirably suited for the growth of rice. Indigo, hemp, tobacco, and cotton are largely cultivated, whilst the forests supply teak and other tropical woods. The population is about 500,000, and is almost wholly engaged in agriculture. Akyab is the chief town, being the port and capital. Other towns are Aracan in the interior, and Ramree on the island of that name.

Pegu.—The district occupying the basin of the Irrawaddy river is known by this name, having on its eastern side the Kingdom of Burmah, on the southern the Tenasserim provinces, and westward the sea. The area of Pegu is 33,000 square miles. Pegu was formerly the richest part of Burmah, but is now surpassed by the great wealth of Tenasserim. Consisting of a broad and nearly level alluvial plain, abundantly watered by the Irrawaddy,

it grows magnificent crops of *rice*, cotton, indige, and tobacco, whilst it has likewise large quantities of gold, precious stones, iron, tin, coal, and amber. Gold is found in the beds of the rivers. Amber is worked near the Irrawaddy. The precious stones include the true ruby, amethyst and sapphire. The population is about 1,800,000, chiefly engaged as agriculturists. The chief towns are Rangoon, Bassein, Pegu, Toango, Gwa, and Prome.

Tenasserim is a long, narrow portion of land lying immediately south of Pegu, and embracing an area of 38,000 square miles. The great value of its productions have made it the wealthiest portion of British Burmah. It has comparatively little land in cultivation, being chiefly covered with forests. These forests are filled with such trees as are usually found in these countries, and with animals and birds that supply a large portion of the export trade. The mineral wealth is also very great, there being large supplies of tin, copper, coal, and iron. The exports are chiefly composed of rice, cotton, indigo, black pepper, areca-nut, ivory, edible birds' nests, bees-wax, India rubber, rhinoceros' horns, and skins. The chief towns are Moulmein, Martaban, Amherst, Ye, Tavoy, Tenasserim, and Mergui on the Mergui Islands. The entire population is not more than 500,000, or about 13 to the square mile.

Government.—British Burmah is considered as a province of India, and consequently is legislated for by the council which meets at Bengal under the name of the "Government of India." The local representative of the Crown is called "The Chief Commissioner." Assisted by a council, he transacts all matters of local interest only, being supervised by the Viceroy for India. The exchequer receipts during the year 1876 were £1,746,891, whilst the expenditure of the Local Government was £856,721. One of the heaviest taxes is that on salt.

History.—The Burmese Empire was a source of great anxiety to the Company in the early portion of the nineteenth century, so that when the Burmese war broke out in 1823, it was determined to take some measures to diminish the danger in that direction. At the close of the war a treaty with the King of Burmah provided for the annexation to Britain of Aracan and Tenasserim. The second Burmese war had a result very similar, the King of Burmah, on this occasion, losing Pegu, so that he was left without any coast (1852). The people are making considerable progress in the arts of civilization, but as yet the great majority of them retain their ancient religious practices.

#### ANDAMAN ISLANDS.

Situation.—The Andaman Islands are a long chain of islands in the Indian Ocean, stretching for nearly 200 miles in a direction due north and south. The most northerly island is about 200 miles south of Negrais, and 380 miles west of Tenasserim.

**Description.**—The greater portion of this group is comprised of the Great and Little Andaman. The Great Andaman is really three islands, called North, Middle, and South Island. The area of the group is about 2,600 square miles, and the population is less than 20,000.

On these islands flourish the cinnamon, nutmeg, clove, gums, medicinal plants, sago, palms, bread-fruit, cocoa, and banana, the whole of the vegetation being remarkable for its luxuriance. The largest animal is the hog. The interior is generally hilly, but the climate is unhealthy, owing chiefly to the swampy ground and the luxuriance of the vegetation which cause a continual malaria. The people are small and of a black complexion, and still retain their primitive habits. Port Blair and Port Cornwallis are the most important posts.

Government and History.—The Andaman Islands are under the rule of a commissioner attached to the Government of India. An attempt was made to colonise these islands in 1791, but was soon abandoned. It was re-occupied by the British in 1856, and ever since has been used as an Indian penal station, Port Blair being its site.

NICOBAR ISLANDS.—These are a group of Islands situated in the Indian Ocean, about 850 miles south of the Andaman Islands. They are very fertile, abounding in the productions of the Indian peninsula, more especially the cocoa nut, bread fruit, plantain, and

yam. The population is about 5,000. Many attempts have been made to colonise the islands by different European nations, but always unsuccessfully, owing to their unhealthy climate. The Nicobar group was annexed by Britain in 1869, and placed under the Commissioner for Andaman.

#### STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

These are settlements in the Malayan peninsula south of Tenasserim province, and comprehend three separate districts known as Penang, Malacca, and Singapore. Their united area is 1,440 square miles, and their population about 310,000.

Penang is a small island off the western coast of the Malay peninsula, from which it is only two miles distant. It is about fifteen miles in length and nine in breadth, with an area of 106 square miles. The central portion of the island is occupied by a range of low hills, but on the west and south is found a plain of considerable magnitude. This plain, as well as the valleys between the hills, possess great fertility, and the productions are both rich and varied. The climate is tropical but remarkably healthy, the heat being greatly modified by the sea breezes. The population numbers 61,800.

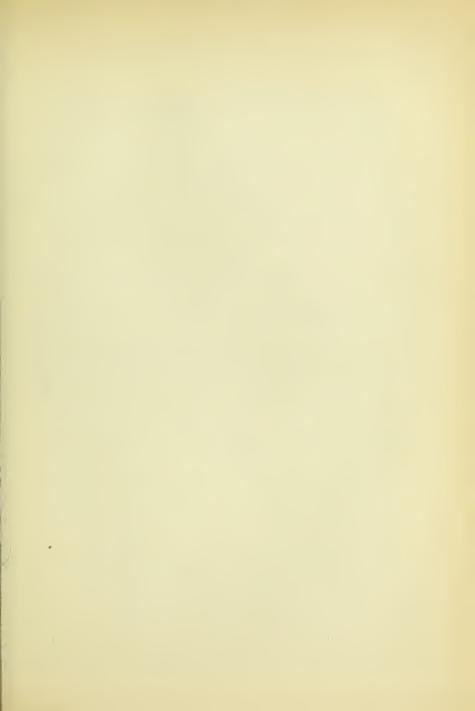
Wellesley Province is situated on the mainland two miles east of the Island of Penang, to which it is directly opposite. The province consists of a coast line thirty-five miles in length, stretching into the interior to a somewhat variable extent, the area being 236 square miles. The climate closely resembles that of Penang, and the soil is equally fertile. Agriculture is more carefully practised in this province, which presents a well cultivated aspect when compared with the land surrounding it. The most noteworthy crops are sugar cane, tapicca, and various spices in a high state of perfection. The large plains are also admirably suited for the rearing of cattle, which is extensively followed. As in the whole of the Malay peninsula, the native productions are very varied, containing nearly all of the most valuable vegetables, and the animals are also well represented. The most characteristic branch of animal life is, undoubtedly, the birds, which are found in great variety, and are remarkable for their gorgeous plumage and peculiar song. The province of Penang. The population is 71,433. Georgetown is the capital and only important town in the province.

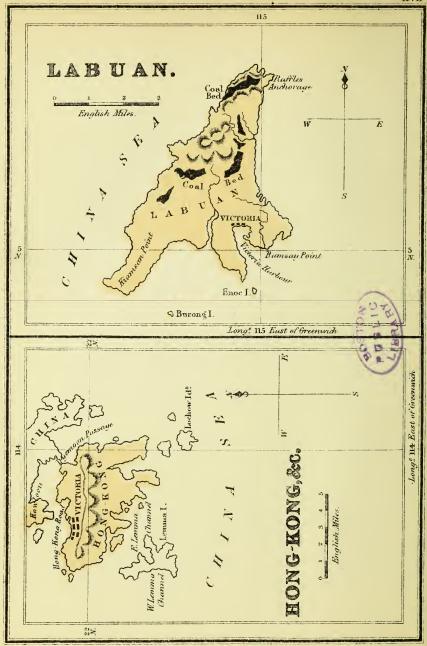
MALACCA.—This is the largest and most important of the Straits Settlements, occupying the southern portion of the Malayan Peninsula, and having an area of nearly 670 square miles.

The coast is bold and rocky, and for some distance inland the land is nearly barren; while the interior is occupied by mountains, separated by large and numerous valleys. These valleys are fertile, and well suited for the growth of rice, rago, and pepper, which are the chief articles of cultivation. Minerals are fairly abundant, and gold dust frequently occurs. The ivory-bearing animals are numerous, that article being an important item in the exports.

The people are chiefly Malays, who number about 58,000. The remainder include nearly 14,000 Chinese, who are amongst the most influential of the inhabitants. The only town is Malacca, the chief military station of Britain in these settlements, and an important port. The entire population of the province is 77,800.

SINGAPORE is an island situated south of the Malayan Peninsula, from which it is separated by a strait about 4 miles in width. The area of the island is 224 square miles, the length being 27 miles, and the breadth 14 miles. The surface of the island is varied and beautiful, and consists of a succession of hills and alluvial valleys, almost entirely covered with forests of trees, natives of this part of the globe. In addition to the ordinary Indian vegetation this island contains rattans, orchids, and a great variety of tall palms without stems. The climate is healthy, and the people are chiefly engaged in the cultivation of cotton, sugar, coffee, pepper, and nutmegs, for which the soil and climate are well suited.





Singapore is the largest town and the only one of importance, and is a great centre of trade with Borneo and the neighbouring islands. The total population of the province is 97,000.

Commerce.—These settlements have considerable commercial relations with the British Islands and the countries in their own neighbourhood. The value of the exports to the British Islands in 1877 was £2,721,795, whilst the imports for the same year amounted to £2,409,828. A large proportion of the imports are re-exported to the Island of Borneo. The chief exports are guttapercha, gambier, indiarubber, hides, canes, sugar, rice, tapicca, sago, spices, dyes, tea, coffee, tobacco, gums, and tin.

Government and History.—These settlements are under the control of a Governor appointed by the Crown. He is assisted by a Lieutenant-Governor for each province, and an Executive Council of nine members. The Legislative Council is composed of ten official members, and six members who must be un-official, in addition to the Lieutenant-Governors of each province. The revenue in 1876 was £332,000, and the expenditure £309,000. Singapore is the seat of government.

These provinces were acquired at different periods—Penang was ceded to the East India Company in 1786 by the Rajah of Kedah; Wellesley by the same ruler in 1798; Malacca was captured from the Dutch in 1795, its possession being confirmed in 1824; and

Singapore was occupied by Sir Stamford Raffles in 1819.

### LABUAN.

Situation.—Labuan is a small island situated in the China Sea, five miles off the north-western coast of Borneo. The island is eleven miles long and six miles broad; area, 35 square miles.

Natural Features.—By far the greater portion of the island consists of a low plain almost covered by forests, containing the teak, ebony, rose, satin, iron, sandal, pepper, and camphor trees. These forests are inhabited by numerous animals, birds, and insects, which constitute a considerable part of the export trade, in the form of hides, birds nests, or beeswax. The northern portion is more hilly, and is also supplied with a good quantity of coal of an excellent quality. This coal is chiefly exported to Singapore for use in the steamships of the Oriental Navigation Company. In the south the island possesses an admirable harbour.

People.—When annexed by Britain, the island was uninhabited. A Colony was formed in 1848, and the people now number nearly 5,000. A town has been erected to the northward of the harbour, and is called Victoria. It contains the government offices and barracks.

The commercial relations of the island are immense compared with its area and population, their amount in 1877 with the British islands alone being valued at £239,590. Of this sum, £126,594 was imported. The imported articles are chiefly manufactured goods, opium, and tea, a great portion of which is distributed to the neighbouring islands. The exports from the island are composed of sago, beeswax, edible birds' nests, camphor, hides, rattans, tortoiseshell, and trepang.

Government and History.—The affairs of the island are placed under a Governor and a Council. Its revenue during the year 1877 was £7,490, and the expenditure £7,995. The island was ceded to the British in 1847 by the Rajah of Bruni (Borneo). It was then uninhabited, but was colonized in the following year. The island is admirably situated for the suppression of piracy in the eastern seas, for which purpose it was annexed.

SARAWAK, a province in the north-west of Borneo, which was given to Sir James Brooke in 1843, is not a portion of the British Empire, but is completely under British influence. It was offered to the Crown in 1859, but was not accepted. The whole district is remarkably fertile, and produces large quantities of cloves, cinnamon, nutmeys, cocoanuts, and rice, while the soil is also peculiarly adapted to the production of the sugarcane.

The chief town is Sarawak, on the coast, having about 12,000 inhabitants. The province was first ruled by Sir James Brooke, with the title of Rajah. On his death in 1868, it passed under the control of his nephew. The greatest value of this province arises from its possession of the mineral antimony, which is found in very few countries.

## HONGKONG.

Situation.—Hongkong is a small island in the South-East of China, off the mouth of the Canton River. It is one of the islands called by the Portuguese the Ladrones, on account of the thievish propensities of the inhabitants. The island is eight miles long and five miles broad, the area being about 30 square miles.

Natural Features.—The coast is very irregular, and possesses a remarkably good harbour on the eastern side. Off the south coast are the Lemma Islands. The interior is mountainous, the heights rising almost precipitously from the sea in the north. In the south there is a plain of but slight extent. The island is nearly barren, the vegetation being very slight and of no importance. It is not known to possess any minerals.

The climate is regarded as healthy although the heat is very great, the mean temperature in summer being 88°. The weather is subject to sudden changes, and occasionally to extreme cold. The South-West Monsoon is prevalent during the summer. The supply

of water is excellent.

People.—The population in 1871 numbered 124,198, of whom 6,000 were whites, 2,800 Indians, and the remainder Chinese. These are chiefly engaged in commercial operations, there being little agriculture practised, and no manufactures except the refining of sugar, distilling of rum, and manufacture of ice. The export trade of the island is considerable, being chiefly the distribution of British and Indian goods. In 1877 the value of goods imported from the United Kingdom was £3,645,068, whilst the exports to the same place amounted to £1,805,310. The exports chiefly consist of opium, sugar, flour, oil, cotton, amber, ivory, betel, sandal wood, rice, tea, woollens, silks, and salt.

The town of Victoria is situated on a splendid harbour, and is the centre of a great

trade. It has about 40,000 inhabitants.

Government and History.—Hongkong is under the direction of a Governor who is assisted by an Executive Council of four members, and a legislative assembly of ten. He has the supervision of all commercial relations with China, and Victoria is the headquarters of the military and naval forces stationed in those seas. The exchequer receipts for 1876 amounted to £184,405, and the expenditure was £187,569. The island was taken possession of by the English in 1841, and was formally ceded under the treaty of Nankin in 1842, which was confirmed in 1843.

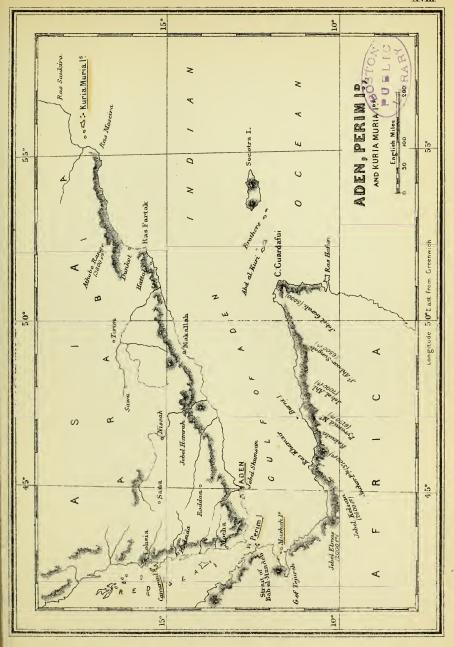
Kowloon.—This is a small peninsula on the Chinese mainland opposite to Hongkong, from which it is separated by the Ly-ee-moon Strait. Its area is not more than three square miles. This peninsula was ceded to Britain in 1861 by the Chinese Emperor in consequence of the damage done to British commerce at Hongkong, by the natives inhabiting it, who were chiefly pirates. By the occupation of Kowloon piracy has been crushed, and the traffic between Hongkong and the mainland is conducted without such great risk as formerly existed.

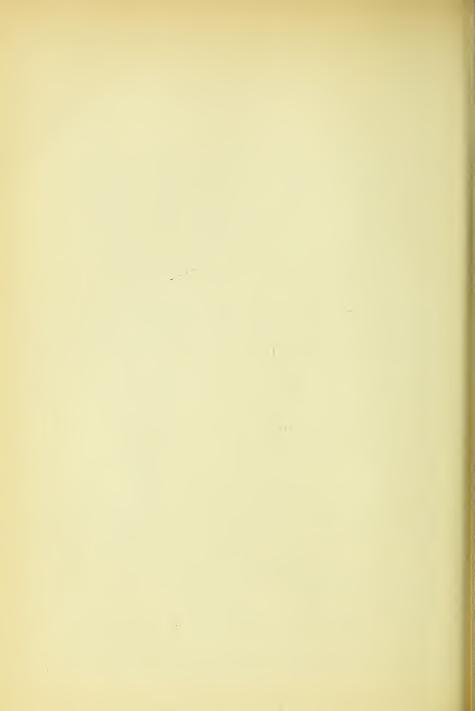
The Lemma Islands south of Hongkong are also British territory.

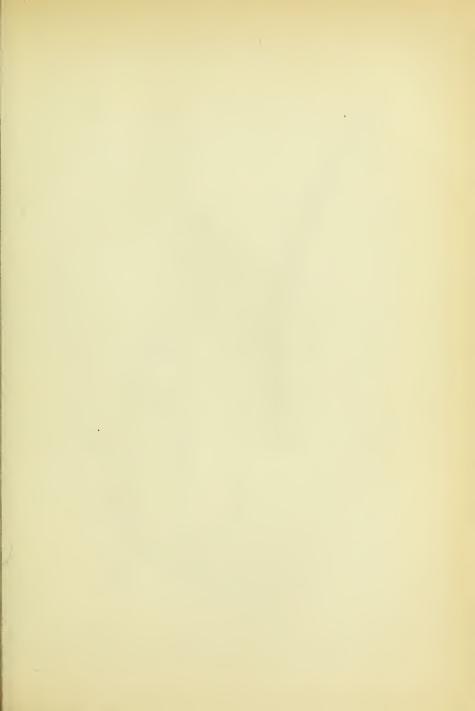
## ADEN.

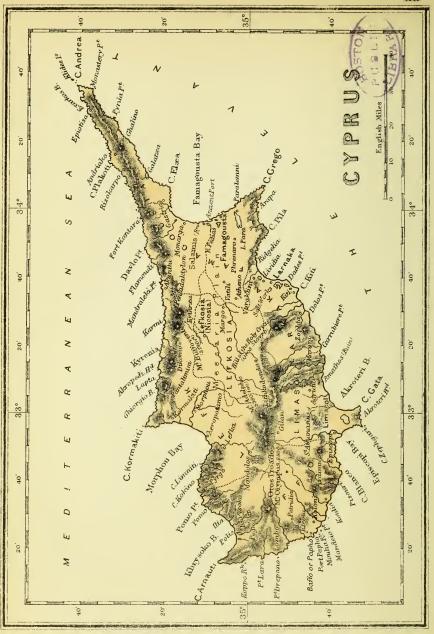
Situation.—Aden is situated on the southern coast of Arabia, about 118 miles east of the entrance to the Red Sea. The whole area under British authority is about 35 square miles.

Natural Features.—The territory consists chiefly of a town and a rocky promontory of volcanic origin, forming a peninsula. The interior rises to a height of 1,760









teet. The town is built on the north-eastern side, and is very strongly fortified. It has the same position with regard to the entrance to the Red Sea that Gibraltar has to the Mediterranean. The climate is always hot. Arabia enjoys almost perpetual sunshine. Rain falls about once in three years, and then continually for three weeks. The peninsule suffers from drought. The weather from October to April is pleasant, from April to September (the change of the monsoons) disagreeable. During June, July, and August strong winds prevail, and the nights are extremely hot.

**People.**—The inhabitants number about 22,000. From its position Aden is of great use as a depot for coal. Since its occupation by the British it has obtained a considerable trade with Arabia. The imports from the United Kingdom in 1877 were £152,917, and the exports, £219,834; and from all countries £1,379,393 and £1,840,675 respectively.

Government and History.—Aden forms a portion of the Bombay Presidency, by which it was annexed in 1839 for outrages committed on British subjects. The town at that time numbered 600 people. To meet the frequent droughts, large tanks have been constructed at the cost of more than a million sterling. These tanks serve as reservoirs for the rain water.

PERIM ISLAND.—This is a small island about four miles long, lying in the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, two miles from the Arabian shore. It was occupied by the British in 1859 at the order of the governor of Aden, for the purpose of having a lighthouse built on it. This has since been done, and the island is occupied by 50 soldiers from Aden.

Kuria Muria Islands are five small islands situated off the eastern portion of South Arabia. They were occupied by the British in 1854, but were considered of no importance until quite lately, when they sprang into notoriety from their large supplies of guano.

CAMARAN ISLANDS in the Red Sea are also occupied by the British.

## CYPRUS.

Situation.—This island forms a portion of the Turkish empire in Asia. It is situated 75 miles east of Latakia on the coast of Syria.

**Extent.**—Measured from Cape Arnauti to Cape Andrea, Cyprus has a length of 140 miles, whilst its breadth between Cape Gata and Cape Kormakiti is 60 miles. The area of Cyprus is about 4,000 square miles.

Coast.—The northern, western, and southern coasts are rocky, but the east is comparatively low and level. The shores contain numerous bays, but their value to shipping is at present a disputed point. The chief bays are Akroteri Bay and Larnaka Bay on the south, Famagousta Bay on the east, and Morphou Bay and Khrysoko Bay on the north. The most prominent headlands are Cape Arnauti the most westerly point, Cape Kormakiti on the north, Cape Andrea the most northerly and easterly point, Cape Grego and Cape Gata on the south. The latter is the most southerly cape.

Surface.—Two mountain rang\*s run through the island, one along the northern coast, and the other through the southern part of the island. Separating these ranges lies a broad well-watered and very fertile plain, called the plain of Messaria. The southern range is the broader and the higher, containing several peaks over 5,000 feet, the average height of the range being about 1,700 feet. The highest peaks are Mount Olympus, 6,500 feet, and Mount Adelphe, 5,380 feet, in the southern range, with Mount Buffovento, 3,240 feet, in the northern range.

The rivers are numerous but generally small, the only one of importance being the

river Pedias, 60 miles in length.

Climate.—The year is divided into two seasons, wet and dry. The rainy season occupies the months between September and April, during which the rain falls more or less abundantly. In the dry season the sky is almost uniformly clear, and the night dews

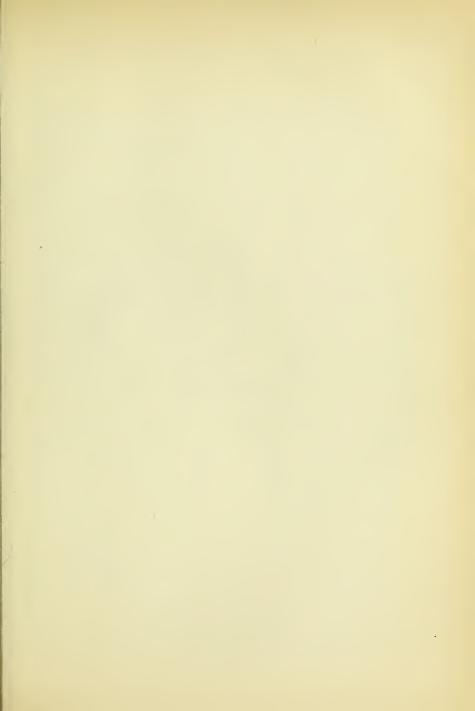
are remarkably heavy. The summer heat averages about 73 degrees and the winter 50 degrees. The climate is supposed to be rather injurious to Europeans, but as yet little reliable information regarding it has been obtained.

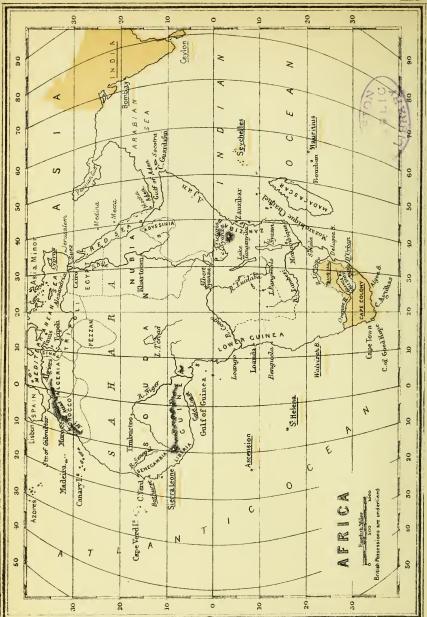
Productions.—Cyprus has all the luxuriant plants of the neighbouring continent, and its climate and soil is admirably adapted to the growth of cotton, wheat, barley, rice, maize, and hemp. Melons and other fruits are abundant. Numerous salt lakes occur at Larnaka. Quite recently gold and coal have been found.

**Population.**—The people number less than 200,000, the majority of whom are Greeks and Armenians. Misgovernment has driven all energy from them, and every branch of industry was in a state of ruinous decay at the time of the British occupation.

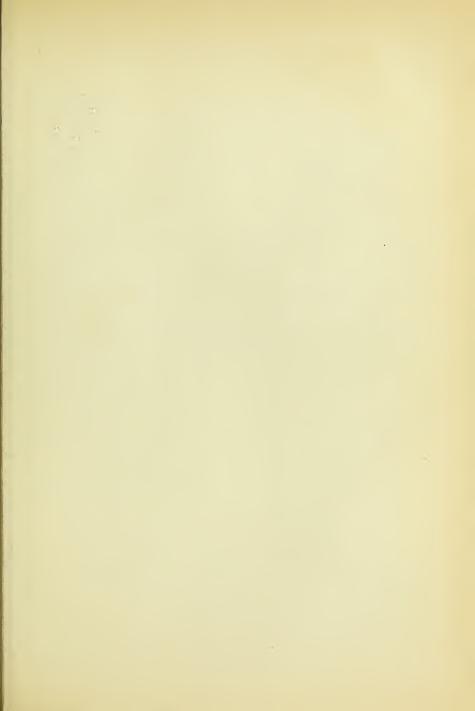
Towns.—The capital is Nicosia in the interior. Famagousta and Larnaka are the chief ports. Other towns of importance are Limasol, Morphou, and Xeropotamo.

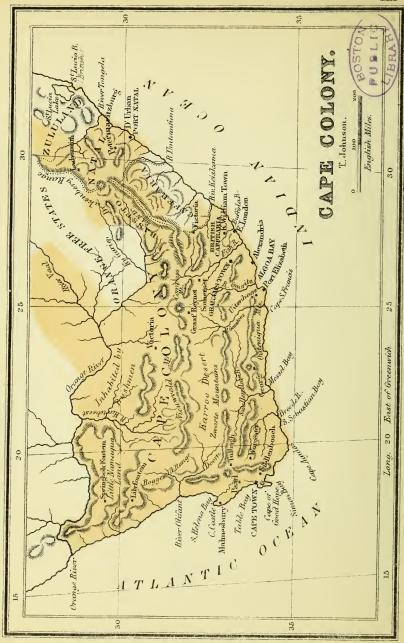
Government, &c.—Cyprus was placed under British control in July, 1878. The island is not strictly a British possession, as the Sultan is the acknowledged sovereign, but practically the island forms a part of the great empire. The executive power is vested in a governor aided by a council, their chief work being to see the satisfactory working of the present laws and the construction of other laws where deemed essential. The first governor chosen was Major-General Sir Garnet Wolseley, C.B., the commander of the Ashantee campaign.





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# PART III.

# BRITISH EMPIRE IN AFRICA.

## CAPE COLONY.

Situation.—Cape Colony is situated in the south of Africa, being washed on the west and south by the Atlantic Ocean. On the north the Orange River separates it from Namaqua Land and the Kalahiri Desert; while its eastern boundary is formed by the Orange River Free State and Natal.

Extent.—The greatest length is that from Cape Agulhas in the south-west to the north-east of the colony, a distance of 650 miles. The greatest breadth is between Cape Agulhas and the Orange River, a distance of 510 miles. The area of Cape Colony is 209,000 square miles.

Coast.—The coast line is generally low and level, although the hills are situated but a short distance inland. The chief openings are St. Helena Bay, Saldanha Bay, Table Bay, False Bay, Mossil Bay, and Algoa Bay. Of these Saldanha Bay is the most commodious and the safest. Simon's Bay, a portion of False Bay, is also safe throughout the year. Table Bay, the most frequented, is a safe harbour between the months of September and May, but at other times is dangerous. The most important promontories are Cape Castle on the west, and the Cape of Good Hope, Cape Agulhas, and Cape St. Francis on the south.

Mountains.—The colony is naturally divided into two portions by a range of mountains running throughout the centre, from east to west, and generally called by the name of the Nieuwveldt Mountains. North of this range the land slopes towards the Orange River. Southward, at a distance of nearly 100 miles, is another range parallel with the first, and of diminished height, known as the Zwarte Berg Mountains. Still further south is found a range running parallel with the coast, and of lower altitude than either of the others, and generally known as the Swellendam Mountains. Within the peninsula formed by Table Bay and False Bay is found an isolated group of hills, which attain their highest point at a hill known as Table Mountain, with an elevation of 3,580 feet. The summit of this hill is broad and flat, whence its name. It is visible from Table Bay, and the inhabitants are frequently enabled to foretell storms by the appearance of its summit.

The Nieuwveldt Mountains form the most northerly of the ranges in Cape Colony. It runs for several hundred miles nearly parallel to the southern coast, from which it is distant about 250 miles. In the eastern portion it is known as the Snee Berg or Snowy Mountains, and the Winter Berg. Still further east it is known as the Drakenberg Mountains, but this portion is not in the Cape Colony. The western extremity takes a sudden bend northward when about 70 miles from the coast, and stretches as far as the Orange River; this portion of the chain being known as the Roggeveldt Mountains. The average height is about 6,000 feet. In the Roggeveldt some peaks reach the altitude of 7,500 feet, and in the eastern extremity the highest peaks attain 11,000 feet. The group known as the Compass Berg Hills have an elevation of 8,500 feet. None of the mountains are clothed in perpetual snow, although their names would seem to indicate it.

The Zwarte Mountains are found about 100 miles south of the Nieuwveldt range, from which they are separated by a plateau known as the Karoo Desert. Their height above

this plateau is but little, their average elevation scarcely exceeding 4,000 feet. Like the Nieuwveldt Mountains this range runs parallel with the southern coast. These hills are also known as the Schwartz Berg, or the Black Mountains.

The Swellendam Range is of less elevation than the others, the average height being about 3,000 feet. They are about 50 miles south of the Zwarte Berg Mountains, and in some portions approach closely the southern coast of the colony. In their eastern

extremity they are known as the Outeniqua Mountains.

The passes through the whole of these ranges are almost entirely confined to long, narrow, and deep clefts known as *kloofs*, and capable of being defended against great numbers by a small force. These kloofs are little better than gorges. The slopes of the hills facing the sea are generally covered with forests.

Rivers.—The Cape Colony possesses a large number of small rivers, but they are of but little use either for purposes of irrigation or navigation. They are chiefly insignificant torrents in the dry season, but are swelled by the rains to powerful streams. If their beds were suitable, their rapid flow would not admit of their being navigated, even when full; and the great depth of the bed below the level of the land adjacent to its banks makes their use for purposes of irrigation impracticable. Even the Orange River, which has a length of 1,000 miles, and a drainage of about 320,000 square miles, has not sufficient depth to float vessels of any magnitude. Those rivers that are of sufficient depth for navigation by vessels, have large sand banks at their mouths, which prevent the entrance of large vessels. The colony is, consequently, very deficient in its supply of inland waters.

The following table will show the coasts through which the various rivers enter the sea, i.e.—L, the west; II., the south; together with their sources, and approximate

lengths and areas of drainage.

COAST.	River.	Source,	LENGTH.	AREA OF DRAINAGE
I.	Orange River Ky-Gariep		Miles.	Sq. Miles.
	Nu-Gariep Harte beeste Brager Ongar		§ 1,000	320,000
	Buffalo River Olifant River		120 160	5,000 20,000
II.	Breede River Gauritz River Gamtoos River Sunday River Great Fish River Keiskamma	Western extremity of Zwarte Mountains South of the Nieuwveldt Mountains South of Winter Berg Mountains South of the Compass Berg South of the Winter Berg Mountains Mountains of British Caffraria	170 170 200 150 240	5,000 11,000 12,000
1	Great Kei River			

There are no lakes of importance in the colony, but during the dry season many rivers, which at other periods are important and large streams, consist of a series of pools dotted here and there throughout their proper course, the other portions of the bed being dry. The wet season is generally sufficient to raise these dry beds to the importance of mighty floods. The Hartebeeste and Great Fish rivers are examples, the beds of both being dry for the greater part of the year. It may be regarded as a fact, that the rivers draining the Great Karoo are chiefly dry beds, subject to be suddenly filled and flooded. The Breede river and the Olifant river are permanent streams; but the Breede is the only river of the colony that can be called navigable, the entrance to the Orange River being barred by sand-banks, and its depth being too low for navigation.

Most of the rivers, when low, have strong saline properties, in consequence of the character of the beds through which they flow. In the beds of evaporated shallow pools,

in the northern portion of the colony, salt is frequently found in thin crusts.

Plains, &c.—From the Nieuwveldt Mountains the country slopes gradually towards the Orange River, forming large plains, most frequently barren, but occasionally covered

with rank vegetation known as "the Bush."

Between the Nieuwveldt Mountains and the Zwarte Berg Mountains occurs a large elevated tract of land known as the Great Karoo. This is the highest and largest of the three terraces between the Nieuwveldt Mountains and the southern coast. It stretches from east to west for nearly 300 miles, and has an average breadth of 80 miles. The greater portion of this tract consists of clay, slightly covered with sand, incapable of nourishing vegetation throughout the year, but presenting immediately after the rainy season the appearance of a vast flower garden. The eastern and well-watered portion is, however, very productive, and well repays the labour of the cultivator. The second of these terraces runs between the Zwarte Berg and Swellendam Mountains, and is about 30 miles in average breadth. It is comprised of large tracts of both fertile land and arid desert; the name of "karoo" being given throughout Africa to all such portions of land. This terrace is known as the Long Kloof in the eastern portion, and westward as Kanna Land. The portion between the sea and the Swellendam range is of but little elevation. It forms the last of the level tracts or terraces between the Nieuwveldt Mountains and the sea, and is composed of well-watered and fertile plains. It is supposed that the country north of the Nieuwveldt is of greater height than the Great Karoo, but little is known of that vast expanse. It is generally believed, however, to be like the Great Karoo, in being chiefly a wild, arid desert, except after the fall of heavy rains.

Climate.—Being situated in Africa, noted for the regularity of the occurrence of wet and dry seasons, it might naturally have been expected that the same distinct divisions of climate would be found in the Cape Colony. This, however, is not the case, as the rainfall is not only very irregular, but varies with regard to period in different parts of the

Colony.

Situated in the Southern Hemisphere, the winter period occurs at the time when the countries in the Northern Hemisphere are enjoying their summer; thus the months of July and August are the period when the Cape Colony is in the midst of its winter. This winter, however, is of but slight intensity, the average temperature, except on the highest elevations, being so high as 52°. Frost and snow are practically unknown, except on the higher plateaus, where the period of their duration is very limited. The summer is not characterised by any extreme heat, its average temperature being 68°, whilst the mean temperature for the whole year is about 60°.

The heat is rarely overpowering; the cold is never intense; there are no rapid changes; so that the climate of this colony is both healthy and pleasant, and is well suited to Europeans. The air is so bracing and pure, that it often has a good effect on those

suffering from pulmonary complaints.

The great drawback is the irregularity of the rainfall. At some periods the fall will be so slight that the whole land suffers from drought, whilst at others it will be so sudden and heavy that the rivers rise in their beds, overflow their banks, and flood the surrounding land, frequently destroying all the farmers' crops and laying the whole country waste. The Great Karoo is subject to long periods of drought, and the absence of rain for two or three years is not unusual. The coast districts, however, have never suffered

so severely, and although drought is not unknown, it is very exceptional.

The eastern and western portions of the colony present very diversified characteristics with regard to climate. In the former the rainfall is almost confined to the summer period, that is, between October and May, the whole season being chiefly occupied by wet and stormy days. The winter, on the contrary, is comparatively cold but very dry and healthy, and the season is remarkably pleasant. In the western portion just the reverse is found, for the winter is very wet and cold, whilst the summer is dry and pleasant. The heat, both in summer and winter, is such that no fire is necessary, save for cooking purposes, for at least nine months during each year.

The rainfall varies so considerably, that no correct estimate for the whole country can be given. The annual fall at Cape Town, on the Western Coast, is about 24 inches.

The colony is occasionally visited by a hot wind accompanied with sand, which is almost similar to the simoom of North Africa. It blows chiefly from the deserts on the north; and the sand conveyed by it is so fine that it penetrates almost everything, as well as covering every obstacle to its progress, Being of a dull red colour, the houses,

trees, &c., appear after this wind as if they had been recently coloured with red paint. Its duration is short, and the air soon cools, and resumes its normal temperature. The wind is stated to produce no injurious effect on the inhabitants or vegetation.

Minerals.—It was long thought that the Cape Colony had little, if any, mineral wealth, but, since the interior has been investigated, this has been proved to be far from the real case. As yet, copper has been discovered in greatest abundance. This is chiefly worked near the lower course of the Orange river, and the ore is so rich that the pure copper obtained is as much as from 70 to 80 per cent. of the whole excavation. Gold has also been found in considerable quantities, chiefly in Namaqualand, on the southern side of the Orange river. Quite recently diamonds have been found in the bed of the Grange river, near its upper portion, and iron exists in large quantities throughout the Great Karoo. In addition to these are valuable manganese works and salt pans (the beds of former shallow lakes), in the northern portion.

Probably additional minerals will be found, as better acquaintance with the colony is obtained. Of the minerals now known to exist, the only one worked to a large extent is copper, and of this a large quantity is exported. The diamond fields are also being actively

worked.

Vegetation.—The great peculiarity in the native vegetation of this colony is the almost entire absence of trees, or of plants of great utility. This is not a result of the climate, as a large number of useful trees and plants have been introduced, and they now grow with great rapidity, losing none of their valuable properties.

The greater part of the vegetation is composed of heaths, stapelias, protea, euphorbias, and aloes in large varieties. There are also great numbers of slender-stalked plants with thick fleshy leaves, of a kind that flourishes on arid soil. The flowers are remarkable for their great beauty, surpassing those of any other land, the corresponding colours being rarely found elsewhere.

Large tracts of land are covered with a thick and thorny undergrowth, often impene-

trable to human beings, known as the bush.

A large region north of the Nieuwveldt Mountains is almost entirely bush land, and

a race of degraded savages, known as the bushmen, reside in its midst.

Colonists have naturally endeavoured to introduce productions of utility, and these endeavours have been crowned with great success. Large districts are covered with European cereals, and plantations of European and Indian trees of considerable extent have been formed. These plantations are chiefly comprised of what are generally spoken of as timber trees, and they include the ash, elm, sycamore, mahogany, Indian cedar, banyan tree, and many others considered appropriate and desirable. The aloe is largely exported for medicinal purposes.

Zoology.—South Africa probably possesses a larger variety of the different species of animals in existence than any other land, and representatives of the majority of these are found within the confines of Cape Colony. Many of the larger carnivorous animals are being exterminated by the colonists, who employ almost every method to destroy them but they still exist in the vast wild tracts which are nearly or entirely uninhabited by white men. The animals include the lion, leopard, panther, cheetah, hyæna, and jackal amongst the carnivorous, all of which are being rapidly reduced; and the elephant, rhinoceros, quagga, dow, zebra, and buffalo, together with many kinds of deer and antelope, such as the spring-buck, stone-buck, ourebi, oryx, gnu, eland, hartebeeste, and the koodoo. In addition to these, a broad-tailed sheep is plentiful, but it is improbable that this latter is a native.

The birds are numerous and remarkable, the chief being the secretary bird, the honey bird, the weaver bird, and the ostrich. There is also a bird known as the beef-eater, which is found in considerable numbers, and is remarkable for the manner in which it takes its insect food from the backs of various animals. The vulture is also common.

The reptiles are also numerous, and many of them are very deadly; the best known are the *mamba* or chasing-snake, so called from its habit of chasing man or beast for great distances, the *cobra di capello*, the *mountain* and *puff adders*, and the *tree snake*. Each of these is venomous, and a formidable opponent.

Amongst the insect life the white ant and locust abound, and the honey bee and wasp

are numerous. No attempts have been made by the natives to domesticate the bee.

Inhabitants.—At the census taken in 1875 the population of Cape Colony numbered 720,000, including the inhabitants of British Caffraria, who are about 80,000. These are composed of a variety of races, one-third of the number being of white descent.

These whites are chiefly British emigrants, but a large number are descendants of the original colonist—the Dutch. In addition, there are representatives of many

European states, the German being in the greatest preponderance.

The coloured inhabitants are chiefly Hottentots, Kaffirs, or Malays. Of these the Hottentots are the most numerous, and they were, probably, the original inhabitants of South Africa. Naturally their race is the most degraded of all human beings, but they are susceptible of good, and with patient and kind training they frequently become faithful and brave servants, and of great aid to the colonists as shepherds. Their stature is nearly a foot lower than that of average Englishmen; their limbs are slender, their cheekbones high, and their hair grows in tufts unlike anything in the European family.

A race of Hottentots are known as the Bushmen. These have few of the good qualities of the ordinary Hottentot, and may be said to be entirely incapable of improvement. They delight in a wild hunter's life, intermingled with a series of thieving exploits.

The colour of all the Hottentots is a reddish brown.

The Kaffirs are plainly members of the Negro family, possessing most of the characteristics of that race. Their colour is a deep black, and they are tall, powerful, and active. They are the most warlike inhabitants of the colony, and a constant source of trouble to the Government in consequence of their raids. They were not originally inhabitants of this colony, but emigrated in large numbers from their own district, and settled here in numerous tribes. The Fingoes are a branch of the Kaffir family, although formerly their slaves. Throughout the colony different portions of the towns are occupied by the white and black inhabitants.

The Malays are emigrants from the islands in the Indian Ocean. Their number is

not considerable.

The British emigrants are chiefly members of the English Church, which has two bishopries in the colony. In addition are numerous missionaries, sent by various denominations in England, with the object of reclaiming the native population from their idolatrous worship, which is amongst the most degraded and superstitious of its kind. The great majority of the natives are still heathens.

Industrial Occupations.—The greater portion of the colonists are engaged either in the cultivation of the soil, or in the rearing of sheep or cattle. The former of these occupations is confined to the low-lying districts, in the south and east, where the soil possesses great fertility. Here many European and other cereals have been introduced, and wheat, barley, oats, rye, beans, and peas are grown to a greater extent than is necessary for the requirements of the colony, so that considerable quantities are exported. The vine is largely cultivated, and wine has long been an important item in the exports of the colony. This wine is, however, of comparatively poor quality, and the demand for it is now greatly diminished. The grapes grown at a small town called Constantia are, however, of a fine quality, and the wine made from them is of a superior kind, and consequently has a fair demand.

The interior of the colony is especially suitable for the purpose of sheep and cattle rearing, which is carried on to a very great extent. A broad-tailed sheep was found in the colony, and this has been improved by intermixture with the European breeds; so that the wool produced is of an excellent quality. Oxen are also reared in large numbers; and horses have long formed a valuable item of export. These horses are small, but of excellent stamina, and our Indian cavalry regiments are largely supplied from the Cape. Within the last few years ostrich-farming has become an important industry, the bird being reared for the sake of its feathers. The tracts of land used for this purpose are often immense, and many men are occupied in watching them, the Hottentots being largely employed for this purpose. At night the birds are driven into a circular enclosure, as a protection from the attacks of wild beasts.

Mechanics find plenty of occupation, if able to exercise judgment and adapt themselves to the character of their work. Large numbers of workmen have recently been

employed by Government in the construction of railways and dockyards.

Mining is carried on to a considerable extent in the districts already mentioned, and off the coast is an important whale fishery, although this is now decreasing in value.

Nearly all the manufactured goods required are imported from the British Islands, but necessity has caused the employment of a considerable number of persons in the manufacture of soap, candles, leather, hats, saddles, ropes, and tiles, as well as in the working of flour mills, breweries, and distilleries.

Commerce.—The commercial relations are very extensive—extraordinarily so, when its small population and great natural difficulties are considered. The greater portion of the exports are the results of agriculture and sheep-rearing, the native animals contributing to a comparatively slight extent.

The trade is chiefly with the British Islands, but by no means exclusively so. Within a few years the Cape Colony has become one of the chief sources of the supply of wool for the English market, and it also furnishes it with the largest quantities of diamonds.

The value of the whole export trade in 1877 was nearly £3,700,000, and of this £3,560,000 value was exported to the British Islands. The chief articles were wool, wine, productions of whale fishery, hides, skins, flour, butter, tallow, horses, salt beef, potted meats, copper, ivory, ostrich feathers, fruit, aloes, fish, oats, barley, beans, peas, and diamonds. The weight of the wool exported is annually about 37,000,000 lbs.

The import trade is comprised of manufactured goods from the British Islands, and articles of food and luxury not obtainable in the colony. Its value in 1876 amounted to more than £5,000,000, of which nearly £4,000,000 were directly imported from the United Kingdom. The chief articles are manufactured cotton, woollen, hardware, and earthenware goods, fire-arms, furniture, books, and paper from England, and tea, sugar, and timber from the East.

Means of Communication.—The colony is now traversed by many good roads made by the colonists at a great expense of labour, in many places through kloofs and gorges. In spite of the aid of these roads, travelling in the interior is difficult. It is conducted chiefly by means of large cumbersome waggons, drawn by long teams of oxen. These convey the goods from the coast to the interior or the reverse.

Since 1871 the Government have been occupied in the construction of railways, and have spent more than two millions of money in their undertaking. The chief of these are the North-Western and the Midland, both of which are connected with Port Elizabeth.

The railways are now in an advanced state, and many miles are open for traffic.

Large docks have also quite recently been made at Port Alfred, as well as a breakwater constructed at the entrance of the harbour. Thus the colony is now supplied with harbours capable of protecting the vast amount of shipping that annually visits its coasts.

There is no internal water communication (save on the Breede River, by means of boats) worthy of mention, in consequence of the shallowness of the rivers. In addition to the large number of ships trading directly with the Cape, the colony is visited by a considerable number of vessels calling there as an intermediate station for supplies or articles of commerce.

The chief ports are Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, East London, Port Alfred, Mossel Bay, and Port Nolloth. The two former of these are the most important.

Divisions.—The Cape Colony is divided into two large portions, known as the eastern and the western. The latter of these was the first colonised and contains the majority of the agriculturists, the eastern containing chiefly the recent settlers who are engaged in stock-rearing. Each of these divisions is divided into a number of districts of varying extent. These districts increase in number with the population. The chief at present are :-

Western Division.—Cape, Paarl, Caledon, Bredasdorp, Stellenbosch, Malmesbury, Swellendam, Riversdale, Georgetown, Oudihorn, Beaufort, Worcester, Pikesburgh, Tulbagh,

Clanwilliam, Fraserburgh, Calvinia, and Namaqua Land.

Eastern Division.-Victoria, Colesberg, Richmond, Uitenhage, Albany, Somerset, Fort Beaufort, Queenstown, Graaf Reynet, Cradock, Aliwal, Albert, and Hopetown.

In addition to these is a district generally known as British Caffraria, which was annexed by the Crown in 1853, and incorporated with the Cape Colony in 1866. The soil and climate are both superior to the other portions of the colony. It lies between the rivers Keiskamma and Great Kei.

East of the Great Kei is a territory long known as Kaffir Land. Gradually this has been settled by emigrants, and at the wish of the inhabitants large districts are being

taken over by the Cape authorities. The following districts are already annexed or in process of annexation: Fingo Land, population 44,000; Idutwa Reserve, 17,000 inhabitants; St. John's Territory, population 22,000; Tembuland, population 60,000; and East Griqualand which has an area of 6,000 square miles, and a population of 32,000. The government under Chief Krili also occupies one of these Trans-Kei territories; its population being 40,000. The inhabitants are possessors of 6,000 horses, 90,000 sheep, 40,000 cattle, and more than 48,000 goats.

Like those of British Caffraria, the soil and climate of Trans-Kei are very good; the productions are very varied, and the country contains some good timber trees, and great

extent of pasturage.

Towns.—Cape Town, the capital, is in the western district, and is the largest town in the colony. It is surrounded on three sides by high hills of almost perpendicular ascent, the highest being Table Mountain. It is the most important port of the colony, and its population (including suburbs) is 33,000. Simon's Town, on False Bay, is a considerable town with a safe harbour. Besides being an important shipping station, it is the seat of a government arsenal. Other towns in this district are: Malmesbury, Paarl, Pikesberg, Worcester, Swellendam, Caledon, Riversdale, Georgetown, Beaufort, Tulbagh, Clanwilliam, Fraserburgh, Sprinbokfontien, Lillyfontien, Port Nolloth, and Calvinia.

In the eastern district the most important port is Port Elizabeth (13,000), on Algoa Bay, the second in the colony with regard to extent of traffic. Grahamstown (7,000) is also of considerable commercial importance. Other towns are: Uitenhage, Fort Beaufort, King Williamstown, Queenstown, Cradock, Graaf Reynet, Richmond, Colesberg, North Aliwal, Hope Town, and Murrayburg. Nearly all these towns are the centres of districts (already given) bearing the same name. The towns are generally very small, but

built with fair regularity.

Hope Town is in the centre of the diamond fields on the banks of the Nu Gariep, which have been so recently discovered. This little town is rapidly increasing with the success of these fields, as they are being worked to a considerable extent.

Graaf Reynet is a pretty little town built by the Dutch, and one of the oldest in the

colony. It has a population of about 3,000 people, chiefly of Dutch descent.

The water supply of Cape Town is obtained by the cooling effect of the Table Mountain on the moist and heated south-east winds. One consequence of this is the almost perpetual white fleecy clouds around the summit of that hill.

Basuto Land.—This is a large district occupying the country north-east of Cape Colony, having a length of 120 miles, and an average breadth of 75 miles; the area being 9,000 square miles. The eastern frontier is occupied by the Drakenberg Mountains, which separate it from the British colony of Natal. The climate is fairly agreeable, being rather better than that generally found within the Cape Colony. The soil is very productive, possessing the chief native productions of South Africa, amongst them being the aloes and stapelias of the Cape Colony as well as numerous timber trees. European cereals have been introduced with a satisfactory result. The whole surface is a table-land of considerable height, the greater portion being watered by the sources of the Orange river. The population is estimated at 400 British and 128,000 native inhabitants. Basuto Land was proclaimed British territory in 1868, and formally annexed to the Cape Colony in 1871. It is under the rule of an agent appointed by the Governor, who is chief magistrate, and four other magistrates—heads of districts. In 1877-8 the revenue amounted to about £17,300, whilst the expenditure was £16,986.

GRIQUALAND WEST.—This territory is situated in the north-east of Cape Colony, and north of the Vaal or Ky Gariep. It is 180 miles long and 100 miles broad, its area being about 16,700 square miles. This large tract is a plateau nearly 4,000 feet above the sea, and is rich in pasture ground. Within recent years a large variety of minerals have been found, and these now provide the chief occupation of the inhabitants. The most important minerals are diamonds, copper, lead, and iron. Diamonds are the most extensively worked—by "dry diggings," in the central parts where mines are sunk, the diamonds being obtained from the clay and limestone; and by "wet diggings," where they are obtained by washing from the gravel, near the Vaal river. These diggings are the great attraction of this part of the colony. Being situated at a considerable elevation, this province is subject to less intense heat during the summer than the lower

districts of South Africa, whilst in the winter the cold is greater. The atmosphere is clear and very healthy, Griqualand being one of the most salubrious portions of South Africa. The entire population is about 40,000, and of these about one half are whites. The chief towns are Griquatown, Kaarwater, and Lakatlong. Griqualand West formed a distinct colony until 1876, when it was attached to the Cape Colony, forming a province under the rule of an administrator appointed by the Cape.

Diamonds were found at Colesberg Kopje in July, 1871, under the roots of a thorn tree. The land in its vicinity has since been excavated in all directions to the depth of from 50 to 100 feet. The district was annexed by proclamation in 1871, and in 1877 was

attached to the colonial government.

TRANSVAAL.—This large territory, formerly known as the Transvaal Republic, is situated between the Orange River on the south and the Limpopo on the north. It is bounded by the Bechuana country on the west, the Limpopo on the north, Inhambane and Zululand on the east, and the Orange River Free State on the south.

Its greatest length is 600 miles, whilst its greatest width is about 330 miles. Its

area is not less than 114,300 square miles.

The greater portion of the country is fairly level, but the eastern side is occupied by the Quathlamba or Drakenberg Mountains, which have an average height of 6,000 feet. The greatest elevation is not more than 8,000 feet.

The plains are comparatively well watered by the head waters of the Ky Gariep and the tributaries of the Limpopo River, the most important of which is the Olifant River.

The climate is rather hotter than that of the Cape Colony, and in spite of the numerous rivers, the productive power of the soil is slight. It is, however, admirably suited for pasturage. Although the colonists have been deceived with regard to the character of its soil, it has been found to be exceptionally rich in minerals. Gold has been found in several districts, the largest quantities at Hydenburg, Pretoria, and Marabastad; whilst copper, lead, cobalt, iron, and coal have been found in great abundance.

The animals are the same as those found in Cape Colony. The hippopotamus and

crocodile abound on the Limpopo.

The entire population numbers about 300,000, and of these between 20,000 and 30,000 are whites. The chief towns are Potchefstroom, Pretoria, Utrecht, Rustenberg,

Lydenberg, Origstadt, Wylstrom, Zoutpansberg, and Morriversdorp.

The Republic of Transvaal was formed in 1840 by some settlers, who, being dissatisfied with British rule in the Cape Colony, emigrated beyond the Orange River. They were chiefly of Dutch origin, and they governed in that language. Although they claimed the whole territory to the Limpopo, there were numerous native chiefs of Kaffir tribes within their borders whom they had insufficient power to conquer, and who consequently were quite independent.

In 1877 there was every prospect of an outbreak of these natives, which outbreak, it was feared, would involve the whole of the colonies of South Africa. To prevent this, the Transvaal was formally annexed to the Cape Colony in 1877, with the consent of the

greater portion of the inhabitants.

The future government of this district will be in the hands of a Lieutenant-Governor, probably under the authority of the Cape Colony.

Government.—At the head of the Executive is a Governor appointed by the Home Government, and assisted by a Lieutenant-Governor for the eastern portion of the colony.

The colonists have a parliamentary form of government, having a House of Assembly of 68 members, who are elected as the representatives of the inhabitants of the towns and country districts for a period of five years, and a House of Legislature comprised of 21 members, elected by the colonists for a period of 10 years.

The Education of the country is supported by grants to schools from the various

local governments.

The Cape Colony had a public debt of £5,028,959 at the end of the year 1877, chiefly incurred by the various works of improvement undertaken by the government, such as the construction of roads, railways, and docks.

The revenue for the year 1877 was £2,631,602, and the expenditure during the same

period amounted to £3,428,392.

History.—The Cape of Good Hope was first discovered by Bartholomew Diaz in 1487, and in 1498 it was rounded by Vasco di Gama, a Portuguese voyager.

In the year 1620 two commanders in the service of the East India Company

proclaimed it a portion of British territory, but made no attempt to colonize it.

The Dutch established a colony in 1652, which soon arrived at a flourishing condition. From their establishment at the Cape they pushed northward and eastward, and by the year 1750 had annexed all the country south of the Nieuwveldt Mountains. The natives were either driven from their lands or made slaves. The colony was captured by the English during the general European wars at the close of the 18th century, but was restored to the Dutch at the Peace of Amiens in 1801. It was again captured by the English in 1806, and this capture was confirmed at the general peace signed in 1815.

From 1806 to 1852 the colony was ruled by a Governor nominated by the Crown, who was assisted by a small Legislative Council, also nominated by the Crown. In 1852, however, the inhabitants made a great effort to obtain the grant of a Representative Parliament from the home authorities, and this was granted in 1853, its constitution being

founded on that of the British Islands.

Since the British occupation the resources of the country have been greatly increased. Many valuable products have been introduced, and the native wealth has been carefully

sought after and fostered.

The portion captured from the Dutch has been greatly increased. In 1848 the northern boundary was extended to the Orange River, and the eastern to the banks of the Keiskamma. Later (1853) a large territory lying between the Keiskamma River and the Great Kei River, and known as British Caffraria, was annexed, and quite recently the colonial authorities have taken over large tracts east of the Kei River known as the Trans-Kei territories.

A constant source of trouble has been the various attacks made by the Kaffir hordes. The most important of these occurred in the years 1819, 1835, 1846, 1851, and 1876. Their defeats in 1846 and 1851 were thought to have effectually silenced these tribes, and they were fairly quiet neighbours until the outbreaks of 1876. The war in that year was long and tedious, and it is feared that even yet these troublesome members of the colony have not been effectually silenced.

# NATAL.

Situation.—Natal occupies the eastern coast of Africa, and stretches inland beyond the Drakenberg Mountains. Its coast lies between the River Tugela on the north, and the River Umtamfuna on the south. The northern portion is bounded by Zululand, whilst on the west is the Orange River Free State, the southern side being bounded by Kaffirland.

Extent.—The greatest length of Natal is 180 miles, and its width 130 miles. Its area is more than 24,000 square miles.

Coast.—The colony has a considerable extent of coast, but is unfortunate in possessing no good harbour. The only harbour available for vessels is that of Durban, and this cannot be used by vessels of any considerable size in consequence of a bar at the entrance. But for this obstacle the harbour would be a magnificent one, as it is completely land-locked.

Surface.—The district near the coast is low and comparatively level. From this part the land rises in terraces to the high mountains of the interior. Each of these terraces presents different characteristics of soil and production: thus the district lying around the coast is remarkably adapted for the cultivation of cotton; the second terrace is chiefly comprised of pasture land; the third is nearly covered with forest; whilst the fourth produces good crops of wheat and the chief European cereals. Each of these terraces is about 30 miles wide. The interior is occupied by the Drakenberg or Quathlamba Mountains. These run nearly parallel with the coast, and have an average height of between 5,000 and 6,000 feet. This height is, however, often exceeded, and many isolated peaks attain an altitude of from 7,000 to 9,500 feet. Several branch ranges run from this chain through the colony from north to south.

The rivers are very numerous, and no less than 23 empty themselves into the Indian Ocean. The largest is the Tugela. This river is about 200 miles long, and forms for

150 miles of its course the northern boundary of the colony. The other rivers are the Ukumkaxi, the Umzumculu, and the Umtamfuna.

Climate.—The climate of Natal is very healthy, and more suitable to Europeans than that of South Africa in general. The heat is great, as the situation is sub-tropical, the mean for the year being about 69 degrees. The heat in the coast districts is often excessive, but in the lands further removed from the sea, which are of considerably greater height, it is greatly modified. At Maritzburg the average summer heat is 69 degrees, while that of winter is rather more than 60 degrees. It is very seldom that the cold reaches below 50 degrees, although frost and snow occur at rare intervals. The winds are chiefly those blowing from the Indian Ocean, and are almost invariably laden with moisture, so that drought is almost unknown and rainy days frequent. The greater portion of this rainfall occurs during the summer months, the winter being generally dry. The average annual rainfall is about 30 inches at Pieter-Maritzburg, the chief town of the colony, which is situated at an elevation of about 2,500 feet above the sea level.

Minerals.—The most important mineral yet discovered in Natal is coal, and of this a large seam of a good quality has been found, and is extensively worked. This supply of coal will be of great value to the inhabitants, as the Cape Colony has to import coal from England. Other minerals found in considerable quantities are copper and iron. It is anticipated that the exploration and thorough investigation of the mountain ranges in the interior will show Natal to be very rich in minerals.

Vegetation.—Natal has vegetation of far greater variety than the countries in its neighbourhood, and their value is equal to their variety. A great number of plants, such as the cotton plant, indigo, and sugar cane, grow in a native state; and there are also found large quantities of plantains, yams, water melons, pineapples, mulberry trees, oranges, and lemons. The third terrace, and the kloofs between the mountains, are covered with forests filled with the trees found in Central Africa, and contain, amongst many others, the varnish tree, camphor wood, ebony, African teak, cassava, banana, tamarind, butter tree, and zawa. In addition to these almost all the cereals cultivated in Southern Europe can be grown with success.

Zoology.—The animals are very numerous and in great variety, nearly all those of Central and South Africa being represented. The larger animals are, however, becoming rare, as the colonists wage a deadly war against them. A detailed list of these animals has been given with Cape Colony, so that it is unnecessary to reproduce it here.

European animals have been introduced, and the country is found well suited to their

successful rearing.

People.—The population of this colony was given in 1876 as 326,957. Of these

20,500 were whites, 297,300 natives, and about 9,000 Coolies.

The whites are composed of descendants of the Dutch and German Boers, who emigrated from the Cape Colony; and of about 7,000 English, who have settled in Natal since its annexation.

The natives chiefly belong to the Zulu tribe, and are very different in character from the Kaffirs of the neighbouring colonies. Although they are adverse to long-continued occupation, they are almost invariably honest and faithful and remarkably docile. They are largely employed by the white population to assist in the rearing of stock or in agricultural work. They are a branch of the Kaffir family, speaking a dialect of the same language, and having the chief characteristic features of the Kaffir race, as well as the great majority of their customs.

The Coolies are emigrants from Southern India and Ceylon, who find occupation in

the laborious portion of the colonists' work.

Natal was created a colonial bishopric of the English Episcopal Church in 1853. Its religious wants are also administered to by a large number of preachers, many of whom are maintained as missionaries by members of different denominations in England. The majority of the whites are Protestants, but by far the greater portion of the natives still retain their old idolatrous forms of worship.

Industrial Occupations.—Natal promises to become at an early period one of the most flourishing of the agricultural countries. The soil is fertile, and a large number of

valuable European and other plants have been introduced, with great success in the The coast district is found to be well adapted for the growth of majority of instances. the cotton plant, which is largely cultivated. Here also are obtained, with the aid of but little cultivation, the sugar cane and indigo. The higher terraces are admirably adapted for the production of wheat, Indian corn, and coffee, whilst everywhere a variety of useful fruits can be obtained with little trouble or skill. Oranges, lemons, plantains, yams and bananas are to be found in large quantities, and it has been ascertained that nearly all the plants of South Europe, as well as many of tropical growth, can be successfully introduced. In the central portion the soil is most suited for the growth of grasses, and the country, consequently, forms admirable pasturage. This causes the majority of the inhabitants to be stock-keepers, or at least to be engaged in this branch of industry, Large numbers of horses and cattle are kept, and sheep-farming, which is of great extent. is rapidly increasing. Mining operations are but small, very few people being engaged in them. Coal is the only mineral worked to any extent.

Commerce.—The commercial relations of this colony are not to be compared in magnitude with those of many others; but, considering its extent and white population, they show the industry of that portion of the inhabitants. As there are none but unimportant manufactures in the colony, all necessaries have to be imported. The chief imports, therefore, are manufactured cotton, veollen, metal and earthenware goods, books, paper, furniture, and tea. The exports are chiefly articles of produce, being comprised of vool, hides, horses, butter, arrowroot, ivory, sugar, skins, and ostrich feathers. Wool is a very important item of export, and the amount exported is considerably increasing. The weight of wool now annually sent out of the colony is considerably in excess of 6,000,000 lbs. The exports to the British Islands in 1876 amounted in value to £534,180, whilst the imports from the same place reached £762,073.

The means of internal communication are very deficient, as few good roads have been constructed. None of the rivers are navigable, and railways have not as yet been introduced. All goods have to be conveyed by large waggons drawn by oxen, so that traffic is both delayed and diminished by the difficulties of conveyance. The inlets in the coast are also very few, only one, known as Port Natal, being capable of affording safe harbourage

to vessels.

A considerable traffic is carried on between Natal and Cape Colony, and it is extremely probable that at an early date the latter colony will obtain the whole of its supply of coal from Natal. The whole of the export and import trade has to pass through Durban, on Port Natal. This town is in a flourishing condition, and is rapidly increasing.

Towns.—The capital, Pietermaritzburg, is situated in the interior of the colony on a small river 50 miles from Port Natal. It has a population of 7,000. Durban on the bay known as Port Natal, is the only port. Other towns are Greytown, Estcourt, Weedah, Ladismith, and Newcastle.

Government and History.—Natal was originally a province under the Cape authorities, but it has recently been created a separate colony, with a constitution very similar to that of Cape Colony, the administration being in the hands of a Lieutenaut-Governor and two Assemblies, one being an Executive, and the other a Legislative Council.

Since its creation as an independent colony it has incurred a public debt of £350,000, chiefly expended on internal improvements. The annual revenue is about £270,000, and

the expenditure a little less.

The power exercised by the Home authorities is slight, and the colonists receive no interference from them in legislation, except on such important matters as would affect the constitution. Practically, like all similar British colonies, they govern themselves.

The colony was first formed by some Dutch Boers from the Cape colony, who were discontented under the rule of the Cape governor. Territory was granted them by the Zulu chiefs, and they contemplated forming a Republic. In 1842, three years later, the governor at the Cape took military possession of the province, annexing it to the Cape. Although the Boers had in 1839 announced their independence, the Cape Government never acknowledged it. It remained a province of the Cape colony until 1856, when it was created a separate colony under a Lieutenant-Governor, and made entirely free of the Cape Colony.

The colony was first discovered by the Portuguese navigator, Vasco di Gama, on Christmas Day, in 1497, and hence received the name of Natal. It was not colonized until 1837.

Within the last few years the sea-board frontier has been extended from the Umzumculu River to the Umtamfuna, about 2,000 miles of territory having been thus

added.

North of Cape Colony, on the western coast, are Spence's Bay, Ichaboo Island, and Angra Pequena Bay, all of which have been recently taken over by the British Government with the view of completely checking the slave trade habitually carried on from those districts. From all other points of view their acquisition is worthless, as the soil is almost barren and the land possesses no mineral productions. The extent of territory under B. itish protection is not less than 5,000 square miles.

# MAURITIUS.

Situation.—Mauritius is an island situated in the Indian Ocean in latitude 20° south and longitude 57° 30′ east. It is 600 miles due east of Madagascar, and 2,000 miles north-east of Port Natal.

Extent.—Measured from Cape Malheureux to Port Salvannah, the length of the island is more than 40 miles, whilst its breadth, between Four Cocos Point and Belle Isle Point, is at least 25 miles. Its area is about 740 square miles, or one-tenth the size of Wales.

Coast.—The north-eastern and north-western coasts of the island are low, but in the other parts of the coast the hills approach the shore, giving it a wild and rocky aspect.

Around the island is a coral reef running nearly parallel with, and only from oneeighth to one-fourth of a mile distant from, the coast. In this reef there are about a dozen passages, through one of which the island must be approached.

The chief openings are Great Bay, Tomb Bay, Port Louis, Tamarin Bay on the west; Cape Bay, Port Savannah, and Port Arcade on the south; and Grande Port and Port Flacq

on the east

The most northerly point is Cape Malheureux, Cape Brabant is the most westerly, and Four Cocos Point the most easterly.

Surface.—The interior is occupied by ranges of high hills, from which the land gently slopes towards the sea. In the south-eastern part the hills are nearer the coast. These hills do not form a continuous range, but are a series of detached groups, having an average height of nearly 2,000 feet. Many peaks however attain a greater height. Amongst the best known of these are Peter Botte, 2,894 feet, Black Riviere Hill, 3,002 feet, Creoles Mountain, Mount Candos, Pouce Mountain, Mount Fayence, and

Butte des Papayer.

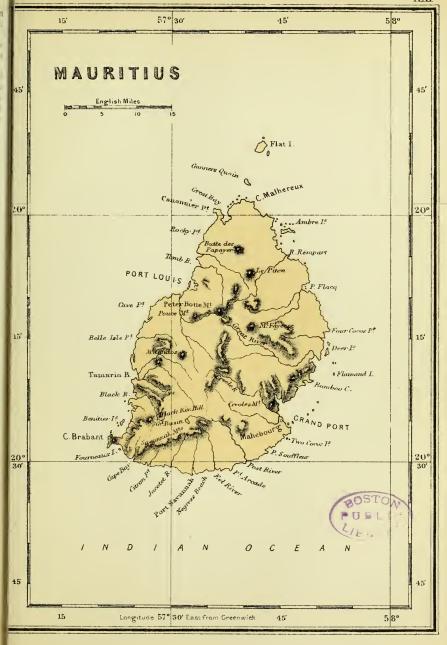
The district between the hills is remarkable for its great beauty, being a succession of low hills, alluvial valleys, and fertile plains. The plains and valleys are watered by numerous streams rising in the central hills, and often forming in their course cascades of great beauty. Their great number makes the island well watered, and they are consequently of great value in its cultivation. The principal rivers are known as the Rempart, Flacq, Great River (25 miles long), Creole River and Grand River flowing east; the Post River, Eel River, and Jacotet River flowing south; and the Tamarin and Port Louis Rivers flowing west.

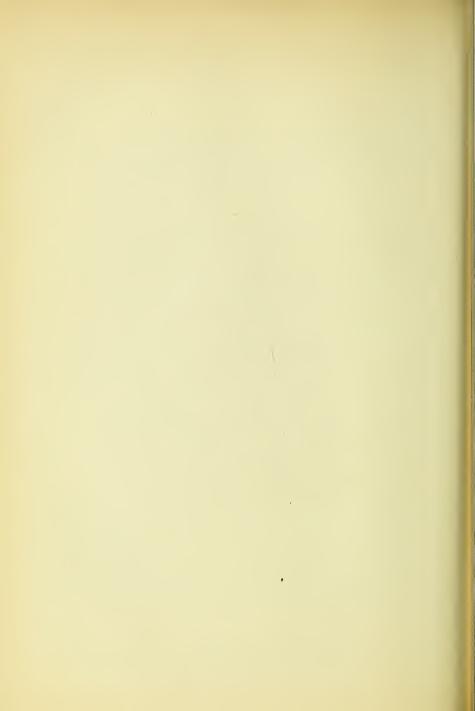
Climate.—The climate is healthy, although the heat is greater than Europeans can generally endure, being as great as 81° during the summer months, and 75° for the winter portion of the year. The mean for the whole year is 78°. The rainy season occurs during the summer, i.e., from November to March, being brought by the north-east monsoon. The rainfall is very heavy, and the rainy season is almost invariably preceded by very violent thunderstorms.

The greatest drawback to the country is its periodical exposure to the hurricane, a circular wind blowing within the Indian Ocean, which frequently strikes the island with

great violence, occasioning the destruction of an immense amount of property.

The winter is usually very dry, but absolute drought never occurs.





Productions.—This island was formerly nearly covered with forests, but since its first occupation the great majority of them have been cut down, and the country placed under that cultivation for which it is so well suited. The productions are very varied and luxuriant, and they include nearly all the tropical productions of Africa, the most important being the ebony, camphor, banyan, and coccanut trees, as well as the coffee, cotton, and sugar plants. It has also a great number of fruits and flowers, amongst them being the banana and water melon. The natural productions are now comparatively unmportant, as the whole of the industry of the inhabitants is devoted to those articles which are cultivated, such as cotton and sugar. The island is not known to possess any mineral resources.

Population.—The resident population in 1875 numbered 344,602. Of these 236,535 were coolies or their descendants—labourers introduced from India. The whites form but a small proportion of the whole, and are chiefly of French descent. Agriculture forms almost the only kind of labour on the island, as by far the greater portion of the inhabitants are employed in tilling the soil, the island being one of the best cultivated in the world. The principal article grown is sugar, of which more than 100,000 tons are annually exported, the chief part being sent to Britain. The island almost seems to be one large sugar plantation. Next in value is rice, which is extensively grown. The growth of coffee and cotton also receives considerable attention.

Commerce.—The island has very extensive commercial relations with most of the neighbouring countries of India, Madagascar, and Cape Colony, as well as the more distant ones of Great Britain and Australia. Nearly all the productions are grown for exportation. The goods required for food and luxury have to be imported. Live stock is largely imported from Madagascar, and rice from India, the latter to be exported. The greater portion of the manufactured articles are obtained from Great Britain, the chief being cotton goods, metal goods, and liquors.

The exports include nearly all the various native productions, the most important being sugar, rice, cotton, coffee, vanilla, aloe, ebony, and tortoise shell. The chief article exported to England is sugar and it is also sent to Australia, Cape Colony, India, and Madagascar. The value of the exports to the British Islands in 1876 was £936,736,

whilst the imports from those islands amounted to £364,067.

The means of communication are good. The planters have secured good roads, and of late years railways have been introduced, and are now actively worked, so that the internal transit is easy and rapid. The coast affords numerous safe harbours, and the means of entrance through the coral reefs are by no means difficult, although care is necessary. Very few of these passages are in general use, so that nearly all the shipping visits Port Louis on the western coast, Grand Port on the eastern, or Salvannah on the southern. An island across the entrance of Port Louis forms a natural harbour.

Towns.—Port Louis, on the harbour of the same name, is the capital, and has a population of 75,000. It is the only port between India and England by the sea route which is at present supplied with dry docks. The only other town of importance is Mahebourg or Grand Port. The smaller towns are Port Salvannah and Port Flacq.

Government.—This is in the hands of a governor, assisted by an executive council of five members and a legislative assembly of eighteen members, of whom seven are official and eleven unofficial. Their appointment is in the hands of the Crown. The island has incurred a public debt of £900,000. Its revenue in 1877 was only £748,059, whilst its expenditure was £703,608, or an excess of £44,451 of the receipts over the expenditure. The island is of inestimable value for the protection of our commerce around the Cape, and is the more necessary because the French hold the neighbouring island of Bourbon, which possesses an equally commanding position.

History—The island of Mauritius was discovered by the Portuguese in 1507, but they made no attempt to colonize it. This, however, was done by the Dutch, who established a colony in 1598, giving it the name which it at present retains, in honour of Maurice, their prince. They retained possession of the island until the year 1710, when, believing it to have proved an unsuccessful colony, they decided to abandon it. The French soon after obtained possession, and it remained in their hands until 1810. In the war between France and England at the commencement of the present century, Mauritius, then called the Isle of France, became the centre of a large number of cruisers, the object of which was the

capture of English East Indiamen. The damage to English commerce was so great, that the English Government sent out an expedition under General Abercrombie to capture the island. This was effected in 1810, and its possession was confirmed to England at the general peace signed in 1815.

RODRIGUE.—This is a small island situated in the Indian Ocean about 300 miles east of Mauritius. It is hilly and well-watered, and its climate is similar to that of Mauritius. The soil is reported as possessing great fertility. The inhabitants are very few in number, and are chiefly old settlers of French descent, engaged in the cultivation of cotton, rice, and sugar. The native productions of the island are very varied. Its area is not more than 188 square miles, or about one-fourth of the size of Mauritius. It forms one of the numerous islands whose centre of government is at Mauritius.

SEYCHELLE ISLANDS.—These are a group of about thirty small islands in the Indian Ocean about 700 miles north-east of Madagascar, and more than 1,000 miles north of Mauritius. They are composed of granite rocks on a bed of coral. Their united area is not more than 100 square miles. The largest island is called Mahi (45 square miles). Nearly all the islands possess at least one good harbour. The climate of these islands is delightful, although the heat is great. The extremes of heat and cold vary little, the mean annual temperature being about 80°. The hurricanes of the Indian Ocean but rarely visit these islands, and violent winds are almost unknown. The vegetation is most luxuriant, and is chiefly composed of a large variety of palms, amongst which are the cocoa nut and date palms. A palm known as the sea cocoa nut is peculiar to these islands, and as the shell is reputed to have the power of detecting any poison placed within it, this fruit has often obtained heavy prices from the superstitious. Upon the larger islands cotton was formerly extensively grown; but of late years it has been comparatively neglected in consequence of the difficulty of obtaining labourers. The palms are the chief source of wealth. From the fibre of the cocoa nuts is made the most important article of export, viz., bags of cocoa fibre, which are sent to Mauritius for sugar. Other articles exported in small quantities are woods of various kinds suitable for furniture, cotton, cocoa nut oil, turtles, and tortoise shell. The turtles are very numerous on nearly all of the islands. Seychelle islands are a part of the colony of Mauritius, and were obtained by the peace of 1814, when Mauritius was ceded to England as one of the dependencies of that island. The chief town is Victoria in Mahi Island. The population numbers about 8,000.

AMIRANTE ISLANDS.—These islands are situated about 200 miles south west of the Seychelles. They are eleven in number, and are of coral formation. The productions of the Amirante Islands closely resemble those of the Seychelles, and the climate is almost exactly the same. The islands are extremely low, the greatest elevation being not more than from 20 to 25 feet above the sea level. Their united area is not more than 40 miles. These islands were placed under British control at the same time as the Seychelles, and like them are a part of the Mauritius administration.

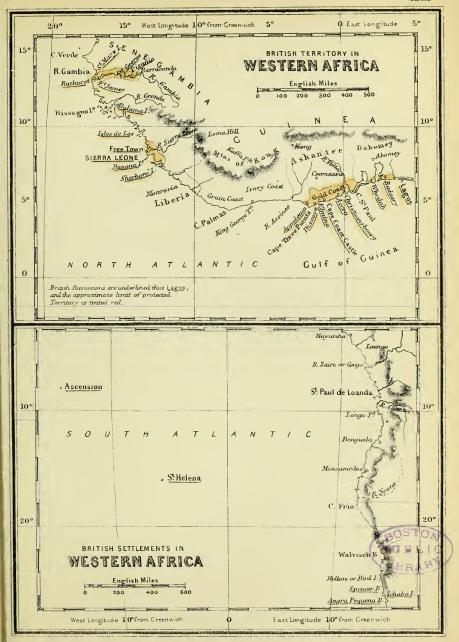
MUSHAH.—This is a small island in the Gulf of Aden, lately taken possession of by the English. It is of little commercial importance, it being occupied for the more effective suppression of the slave trade which is so extensively carried on in its vicinity. The island is under the administration of the Governor of Aden.

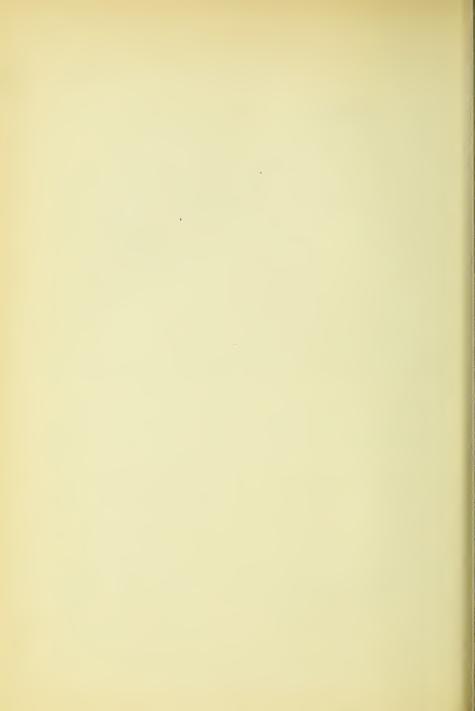
# GAMBIA.

Situation, &c.—The British settlements on the Gambia extend along the banks of that river as far inland as Barraconda. Although the valley is of considerable length, its width is but small, so that the whole area of the British territory does not exceed 21 square miles.

Climate and Productions.—The heat for the greater portion of the year is excessive, and for about five months the climate is one of the most unhealthy in the whole world, fevers being very prevalent.

The soil is very fertile, and the Gambia Valley is filled with forests of magnificent trees. These contain nearly all the varieties of African tropical vegetation, amongst the





most important being teakwood, baobab, palms, gum trees, camwood, and euphorbias. There are also many valuable fruits and esculent roots, such as the banana, tamarind, orange, cassava, yam, ground nut, and papaw.

Numerous animals range through the forests of the neighbouring districts, comprising

lions, elephants, numerous antelopes, hippopotamuses, monkeys, and gazelles.

The only mineral known to exist is gold, which is obtained as dust from the river beds in the interior of the native kingdoms.

Inhabitants, &c.—The population numbers about 7,000. Of these only a very small proportion are Europeans, the majority being Negros of the Mandingo race.

Of late years the ground nut has become an important article of export, chiefly to France. The cultivation of the plant has greatly tended to inculcate the natives with industrious habits.

The chief English settlements on the river are Bathurst, on St. Mary's Island, at its mouth; Fort James, on a small island 30 miles up the river; Fort George, on MacCarthy's Island, 250 miles from the river mouth; and Pisania, still further up the river. Each of

these towns is a small centre of trade with the neighbouring country.

The trade of the Gambia settlements has attained considerable magnitude, the exports having an annual value of nearly £200,000, whilst the import trade is still greater. The chief articles exported are ivory, hides, gold dust, rice, palm oil, timber, ground nuts, copal gum, and hides.

Government and History.—Gambia is a portion of the West African settlements, whose Government is centred in Sierra Leone. It has, however, a Governor and a Legislative Council of seven members, who possess the practical power, although nominally subordinate to the Governor of Sierra Leone. The revenue in 1874 amounted to

£21,380, whilst the expenditure was £20,787.

As early as 1591 a patent was granted by Queen Elizabeth empowering the creation of commercial relations between England and Gambia, and a settlement was established in the same year. In 1618 a settlement was again formed, and like its predecessor maintained a lingering existence for several years. A permanent establishment was founded in 1723, and since that date a regular trade has been conducted between that settlement and the British Islands.

During the early days of the suppression of the slave trade, this settlement was one

of the chief English stations on the Western Coast of Africa.

# SIERRA LEONE.

Situation.—Sierra Leone is an extensive tract on the western coast of Africa, south of the River Senegal. The only portion of it belonging to England is a peninsula 20 miles long by 12 broad, the area of which is 232 square miles, and a number of islands off the coast, of which the chief are the Isle de Los, Sherboro Islands, and Banana Islands. The area of the whole colony is 468 square miles.

Surface.—The land lying near the coast is low and level and frequently swampy. Inland it becomes extremely mountainous, the whole country consisting of a series of high conical hills clothed with forests, separated by valleys possessing the greatest fertility, and filled with the most valuable productions of the tropical zone. The country is watered by numerous streams of which but little is known. The largest river is the Rokelle.

Climate.—There are two seasons, the wet and the dry. The former extends from May to November, when the rain falls in torrents. This season is always introduced by violent storms of thunder and lightning. The annual rainfall averages nearly 170 inches, or rather more than six times the rainfall at London. The dry season extends from November to May. The heat throughout the year is intense, and is probably greater than that at the equator. The climate is unhealthy, and pestilence is very prevalent, especially in the neighbourhood of the coast. Cultivation, together with the clearance of the low land, has, however, greatly improved the climate, and, with care and temperate habits, it is now scarcely more unhealthy than any other country within the tropics.

This country is not visited by the trade winds, but the land and sea breezes are more powerful than usual. The latter begins to blow about ten o'clock in the morning, and the former about nine o'clock at night. The land breeze is very refreshing.

Productions.—Nearly the whole of Sierra Leone is covered with vegetation, chiefly in the form of large and magnificent trees of great variety. Almost all the trees found in tropical Africa are natives of this district, and their variety is scarcely greater than their value. They include a number of gum trees, amongst them being the tree from which copal gum is obtained, the baobab or monkey-bread tree, the shea or buttertree, teak wood, and numerous varieties of palms and cam-wood trees. In addition to these trees are found numbers of esculent roots and fruit-bearing trees, of which the chief are the sweet potato, cassava, yam, orange, cocoa nut, banana, and guava, together with a plant about eighteen inches high, the root of which is known as the ground-nut. The most important of these are the species of palm from which the palm oil of commerce is obtained, the ground-nuts, and the copal-gum trees, all of which have great commercial value. One of the most peculiar is the baobab, which, although rarely attaining a height of 70 feet, is often more than 30 feet in circumference. Another magnificent timber tree is known as the zava. In addition to the native vegetation, many products of other countries have been introduced, and with considerable success in several cases. The most successful have been coffee, sugar, indigo, and ginger. The district is numerously populated by animals of almost every size, the elephant, lion, deer, and monkey being amongst them. The tusks of the elephant are an important item of commerce. The hides of several animals are also exported. Sierra Leone possesses no mineral wealth.

Inhabitants.—The population under British rule was officially given in 1874 as 37,089, and of these about 130 were whites. The coloured population contains members of more than a hundred different tribes, being chiefly composed of slaves rescued by the British cruisers, together with their descendants.

The only town is Free Town, but there are also a great number of picturesque

villages of small size.

The commercial relations of this district are very important and of increasing value. The chief articles of export are cocoanut, ginger, ground nuts, copal gum, hides and palmoil, whilst the imports consist of liquors, articles of clothing, cotton and woollen goods, haberdashery and tobacco. The value of the exports from Sierra Leone and Gambia in 1877 amounted to £368,471, whilst the imports were £388,530.

Government.—Sierra Leone forms one of the Crown Colonies. The administration is under the control of a Governor and an Executive Council, together with a Legislative Assembly of nine members, five of whom are official and the remainder unofficial.

The revenue in 1877 amounted to £56,373, and the expenditure reached £53,898. Subordinate to the colony of Sierra Leone are the settlements of the Gambia, whilst

the islands of Los, Sherboro, and Banana are portions of the colony.

History.—The western portion of Africa was discovered in 1463, but was not colonised by Europeans. In 1750 an Act was passed, empowering a Company, known as "The African," to trade with that part of the African coast lying between the parallels of 20 degrees west longitude and 20 degrees south latitude. The first settlement was made in 1787, and it has since remained in British hands. After the abolition of slavery in the British dominions, a large number of freed negroes were settled here, and their number has been increased by the slaves captured by British cruisers after 1807. The Isles de Los were purchased in 1818, and later the Banana Islands were acquired in the same manner.

#### GOLD COAST.

Situation.—This district lies along the Coast of Guinea, between the parallels of 2° 40′ west longitude and 1° 20′ east longitude, being bounded on the east by the river Volti; west by the River Assini; south by the Atlantic Ocean; and on the north by numerous negro kingdoms, the most important of which are Ashantee and Dahomey.

Extent.—The Gold coast stretches from east to west for more than 340 miles, the average breadth of territory under British authority being 50 miles. The area of the whole is not less than 16,000 square miles.

Surface.—Throughout the entire length of the coast there is no good harbour, the mouths of the numerous rivers not being available. Ships cannot approach the coast, and have to anchor at least a mile from the shore. The western portion of the coast is bold and rocky, while the eastern is low, level, and sandy. The interior consists chiefly of level plains, covered with immense forests or rank grasses, but in some parts the country becomes rather mountainous.

The rivers are numerous, but are chiefly of small size, and but little is known about them. The largest is the Prah, rising in the kingdom of Ashantee, and having Coomassie on its banks. Its lower course lies entirely within British territory.

The undulating appearance of the country, covered with the most luxuriant vegeta-

tion, is a most attractive spectacle.

Climate and Productions.—The climate of the Gold Coast so closely resembles that of the Gambia settlements and Sierra Leone, that a detailed description is unnecessary. Like both those colonies it is extremely unhealthy for Europeans.

The vegetation of this district is the same as in the other tropical regions. The

baobab, gum trees, and palms are all found in great abundance.

In the interior gold is found mixed with the soil in little nuggets. This mineral is

often used for purposes of barter.

Animals are plentiful, and contain those already enumerated as inhabiting the other tropical districts of Africa.

Inhabitants.—The population under British control is probably about 550,000; only a few being Europeans. The natives are chiefly members of the neighbouring tribes, and include representatives of a large number of races. As a substitute for money a shell called the *cowrie* is used. £1 is equal in value to nearly 9,000 cowries.

An extensive trade is conducted with the kingdoms in the interior, from which gold, palm oil, ivory, and gum is obtained for exportation, European goods being usually given in exchange. The articles imported from England are chiefly liquors, apparel, cloths, hardware, and tobacco.

Towns.—These are the settlements at intervals along the coast. The most important are Cape Coast Castle (the seat of Government and a strong fortress, with a native town of 10,000 inhabitants outside the fort), Elmina, Accra, Axim, Dixcove, Annamaboe, Fort St. James, St. Jago, Christianburg, Adda, Quettah, Saccondee, and Chunna.

Government.—This colony was erected into a Crown Colony in 1874, and is in charge of a Governor, assisted by a Council, all of whom are appointed by the Queen.

The revenue for 1875 was £93,347, being in excess of the expenditure by £10,606. All the settlements in this part of Africa derive their revenues from specific duties on certain articles imported.

History.—The whole of the West African Coast, for 20° on either side of the equator, was nominally in the hands of a chartered company until 1821, when they were handed over to the British Crown. The Dutch, however, had also formed settlements, and the two nations, finding the proximity unfavourable, entered into a treaty by which the Dutch ceded to the English all their settlements, the English withdrawing their influence at Santiago as a corresponding equivalent. This arrangement was distasteful to a large number of residents, as well as to some of the neighbouring kingdoms. After some delay the Ashantee King determined to eradicate British influence, and marched a large army into British territory. The small garrisons were unable to act on the offensive until the arrival of Sir Garnet Wolseley, who organised an army of natives and Europeans, and marched against the Ashantees. The first important battle was fought at Amoaful, when the Ashantee defeat was accompanied by a severe loss. Sir Garnet Wolseley continued his march as far as Coomassie, which he captured and burned. He then enforced payment of a war indemnity, and placed the relations of the Ashantees and the friendly natives on a settled footing.

In 1874 the Gold Coast was proclaimed a colony, under the name of the Colony of the

Gold Coast.

#### LAGOS.

Situation.—Lagos is a small island lying off the eastern shores of Guinea, and includes within its colony the coast lying between 2° 50′ east and 4° 30′ east.

Climate and Productions.—In climate it is rather less unhealthy than the other settlements. The heat is, however, greater than is suitable for Europeans. The vegetation comprises the usual productions of tropical Africa, while the minerals already known are lead, iron, and a little gold. The soil is fertile, and indigo and cotton are extensively grown. The oil palm is also abundant.

Inhabitants.—In 1872 the people numbered more than 60,000, of whom not more than 94 were whites. The chief towns are Lagos on the island of that name, and Whydah and Badagry on the coast. Lagos is the centre of a considerable trade, while Whydah is an important manufacturing town.

Imports and Exports.—The chief exports are palm-oil, ivory, gum, and grains, The value of the imports in 1876 was £476,813, while that of the exports was £619,260.

Government and History.—Lagos is under the control of a Lieutenant-Governor, aided by a Council, the whole being subordinate to the Governor of the Gold Coast. The revenue for 1875 was £43,360, and the expenditure £43,379. Lagos and its dependencies were ceded to Britain by Docema, their previous king, in 1861, they being necessary for the successful suppression of the slave trade, of which these places were the centre. Since their annexation the slave trade has been crushed, and these, the former centres of that inhuman traffic, have now become the means of opening up the interior of this portion of Africa.

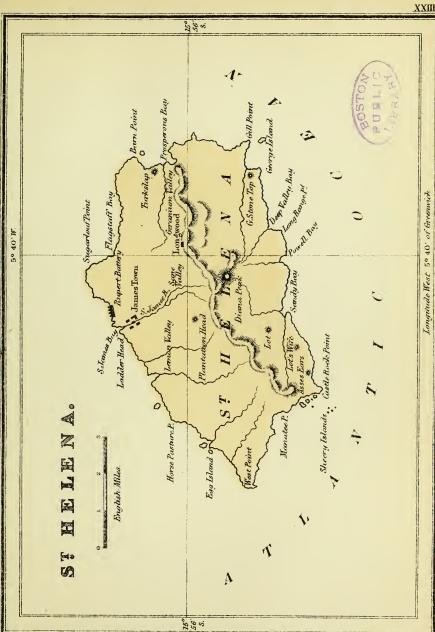
# ST. HELENA.

Situation.—An island in the midst of the Atlantic Ocean, 850 miles from the nearest land, and 1,150 miles from the nearest point of Africa. It is 15° 45′ south latitude, and 5° 40′ west longitude.

Extent.—Measured from Castle Rock Point, the most southerly cape, to Sugar Loaf Point, the most northerly, the island has a length of nine miles, while its breadth between West Point and Gill Point is ten miles. The area is about 47 square miles.

Surface.—The island is of volcanic origin, and presents to the sea an almost perpendicular rock of from 600 to 1,200 feet in height. The only harbour of importance in the whole coast is St. James' Bay on the north-east. At the summit of the cliffs is a fertile plain, interspersed with numerous conical hills, which often attain considerable height. The highest of these is Diana Peak, 2,700 feet in height. The other well-known elevations are Lot, Lot's Wife, Plantation Head, Great Stone Top, and Turk's Top. The island is well watered by numerous streams rising in the centre of the table land, which forms the water-shed. They are all unfit for navigation, and the only one of any importance is the St. James River entering St. James Bay. The whole of the level districts are fairly productive. Amongst the most fertile are those known as Lemon Valley, Sane Valley, and Geranium Valley.

Climate.—The climate is the most healthy of any place within the tropics, the great heat of this region being modified to a considerable extent by the trade winds. The difference between the average winter and summer heat is not more than 6°, whilst the mean temperature for the whole year is 61°. The climate is so mild and varies so little, that the island is a resort of Anglo-Indians, who visit it for the purpose of recruiting their health, which a residence in India has impaired. Rain falls both in summer and winter. The summer rains occur chiefly in January and February, and the winterones in July and August. Rain is not entirely confined to these periods, and showers are very frequent. The rainfall is moderate, little more than 27 inches falling annually. The humidity of the air is not unhealthy, and the climate is very suitable to Europeans who have to sojourn on the island.



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**Productions.**—The soil is very fertile, and its position and elevation permit the successful growth of many sub-tropical plants and trees, as also of a large number introduced from Europe. The chief articles cultivated are *fruits* and *vegetables*. The island is not known to possess any mineral wealth, nor has it any manufactures.

**Population.**—At the census taken in 1871 it was found that the inhabitants numbered 6,241, and that of these about one-third were Europeans. The remainder are of a mixed descent, being emigrants from various parts of Asia and Africa, or their descendants, while the Europeans are either visitors to the island for health, capitalists, or in some good situation. The cultivation of the soil and all manual labour in connection with the trade of the island is conducted by the native population.

The chief articles cultivated are vegetables for the supply of vessels calling for pro-

visions. Large quantities of fowls, as well as a number of animals, are also bred.

The chief portion of the export trade is formed by supplying calling vessels with fresh provisions. This is an extensive trade, as the island lies in the direct route of all vessels on the homeward voyage from India round the Cape of Good Hope.

The imports chiefly comprise manufactured goods, tea, coffee, sugar, and liquors.

Towns.—The only town is Jamestown, built on St. James Bay. It has a safe harbour, and is very strongly fortified by a number of fortresses placed on the hills surrounding it. The town is built at the mouth of a ravine. In the centre of the island is Longwood, which is famous as the scene of Napoleon's confinement between 1815 and 1821.

Government and History.—The administration is in the hands of a Governor and Executive Council, appointed by the Crown. In the year 1876 the amount of the revenue was only £13,167, whilst the expenditure was £162 in excess, or £13,329.

The island was first discovered by a Portuguese navigator, called Juan de Nova Castella, on the 21st day of May, 1501. He named the island after the Saint whose day it was, and the island has since retained the name. It was unknown to all other European nations until 1558, when Captain Cavendish discovered it on his return from a

voyage round the world.

The first inhabitants were some Dutch colonists, and it may be considered as being a possession of that country until 1673, when it was captured by Captain Munden. It was then granted by charter to the East India Company, and they retained it until the year 1833, with the exception of the years between 1815-20. They employed it chiefly as a training station for the recruits of their Indian army. During the numerous European wars of the eighteenth century, they found the island to be an almost incalculable advantage for the defence of their trade.

The Crown took possession of the island in 1815, when Napoleon was placed there to be kept in exile, and he occupied it until his death in 1821. It was then restored to the East India Company, but was ceded by them to the British Government in 1833, and

since has been an important centre for trading vessels.

This island, together with those of Ascension and Tristan d'Acunha, was created the see of a colonial bishopric of the English Church in 1850.

# ASCENSION ISLAND.

Situation, &c.—This island is situated in the midst of the Atlantic Ocean, 800 miles north-west of St. Helena, 900 miles south of Cape Negrais, and about 1,900 miles west of the mouth of the River Congo. It is about eight miles in length by six miles in breadth, the area being not more than 35 square miles.

Natural Features.—The interior has a remarkably wild and barren aspect, being chiefly comprised of huge boulders or rocks, piled one on the other, which reach at the highest point an elevation of more than 2,870 feet. The few level tracts are chiefly lava, the island being of volcanic origin. The climate is very healthy, and although the heat is great, the mean temperature being 75 degrees, the little variation experienced in its

intensity makes it fairly endurable to natives of temperate climes. The sea breezes modify its temperature greatly. The soil is poor and produces nothing but a meagre herbage, little more than sufficient to provide food for a few goats and some cattle and sheep. The only native production worthy of note is the turtle, which is so plentiful that on an average 400 are killed every year. Birds known as sea swallows visit the island in immense numbers, and their eggs form an important item in the food of the inhabitants,

Inhabitants.—The population numbers about 300, of whom the majority are sailors or others engaged in maritime affairs. The great value of the island at present is its aid to the suppression of the slave trade by its advantageous position. Within recent years a naval yard, steam factory, and a coal depot have been formed.

Exports and Imports.—The only articles of export are turtles and swallows' eygs. The value of the articles imported from England in 1874 was £4,678, whilst the exports to the same country were of the value of £38.

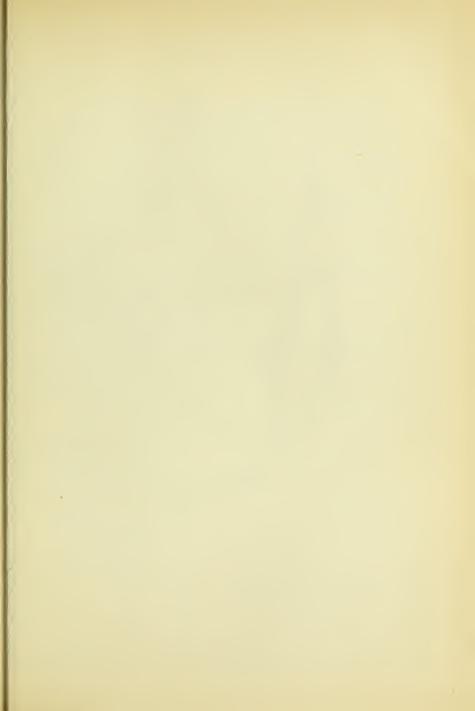
The only town is Georgetown, the seat of Government. The only harbour on the

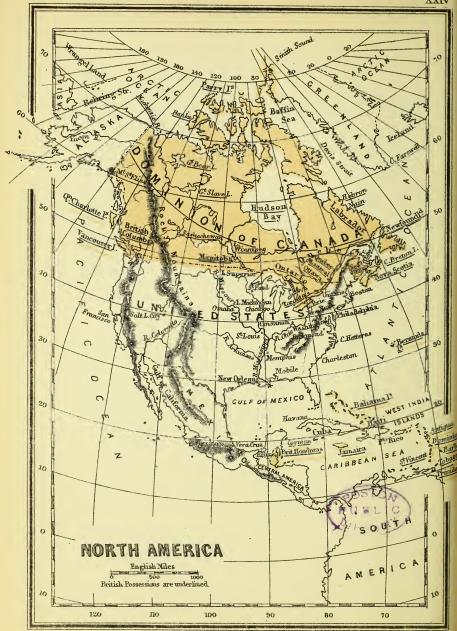
coast is on the north-west, and is known as Sandy Bay.

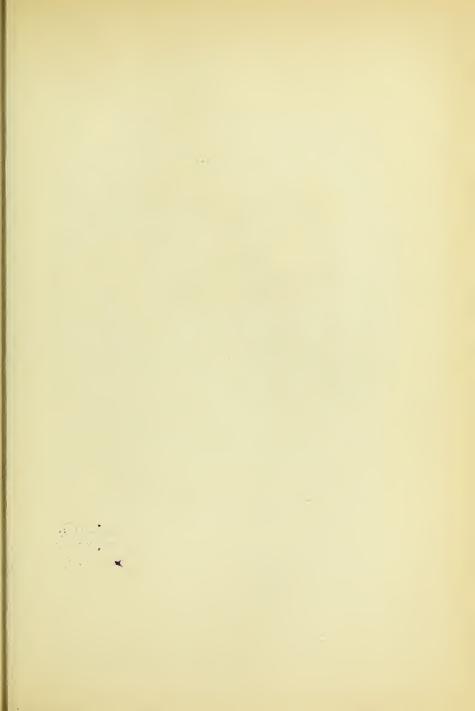
Government and History.—The administration is vested in the Board of Admiralty, who appoint as governor an officer of the English Navy. The power of this officer is as unlimited as if he were the commander of an English man-of-war. The island was first discovered on Ascension Day, 1501. It was, however, uninhabited prior to its occupation by the English in 1815, when it was created a military station, and maintained as such during the confinement of Napoleon at St. Helena. Its sole importance at present arises from its situation as a naval station for the African fleet. From the earlier days of the East India Company the island has been constantly visited by homeward-bound ships, being on their direct route.

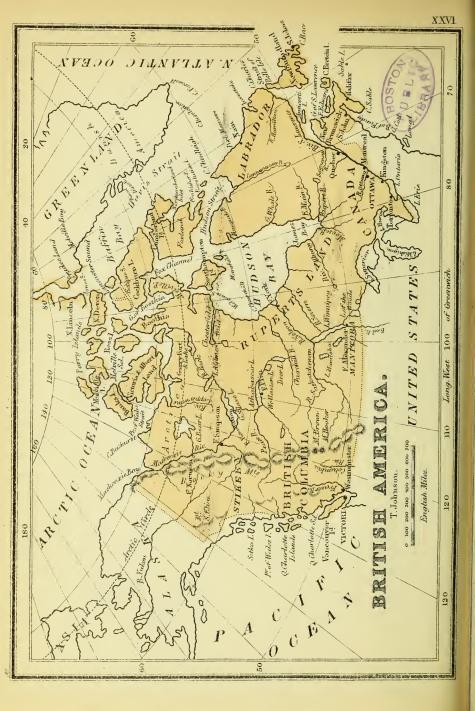
# TRISTAN D'ACUNHA.

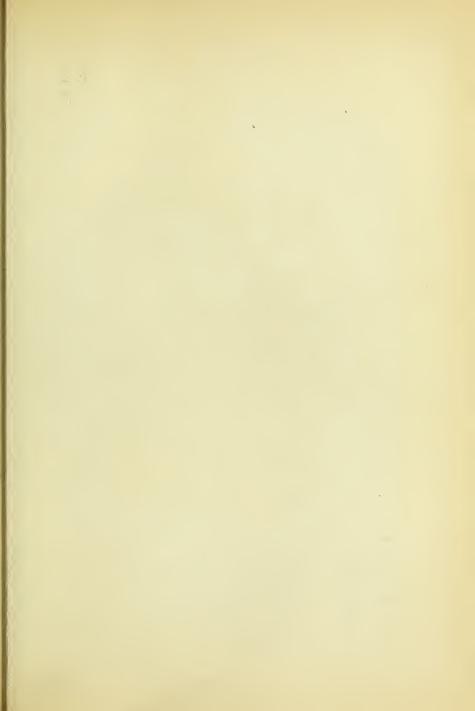
Situation, &c.—Three small islands, generally spoken of by this name, lie in the Atlantic Ocean, 1,750 miles from the Cape of Good Hope (south-west). The largest island is called Tristan d'Acunha, the others Nightingale Island and Inaccessible Island respectively. They are all of volcanic origin, and in the interior rise to a great height. A large conical hill in Tristan d'Acunha is 8,300 feet high, and contains the crater of an extinct volcano. These islands were occupied by Great Britain in 1815, and for six years formed a military station. Attempts were made to colonise them by American and Scotch families, but had to be abandoned on account of their exposure to the ocean. The islands were visited by Prince Alfred in 1867.

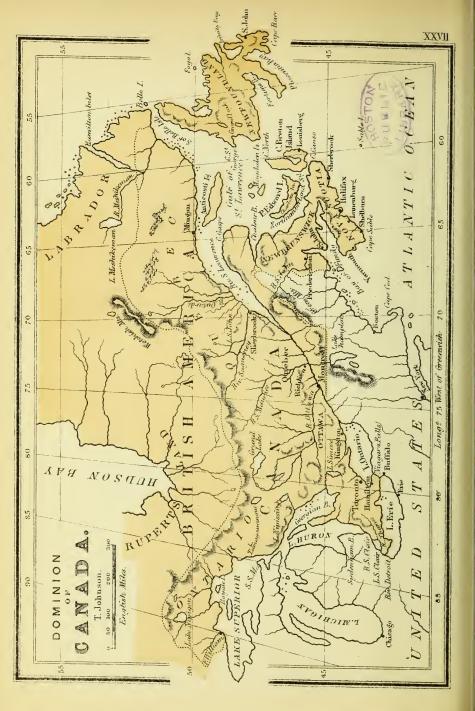












# PART IV.

# BRITISH EMPIRE IN AMERICA.

# DOMINION OF CANADA.

Situation.—The Dominion of Canada occupies the greater portion of America north of the United States. Its boundary is formed on the west by Alaska and the Pacific Ocean, on the south by the United States, on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the north by the Arctic Ocean.

Extent.—Formerly the whole of the British possessions in this part of the continent were known as British North America; but recently they have been united (with the exception of Newfoundland) to form the present Dominion. The greatest length from Cape Charles to Queen Charlotte's Sound is 3,000 miles, while the breadth from the mouth of the Mackenzie River to Queen Charlotte's Sound is about 1,400 miles. The area is 3,580,310 square miles, or about the same as that of Europe without Spain.

Coast.—The extent of the coast cannot be less than 13,000 square miles, or one mile of coast to 275 square miles of area. The greater portion of this, however, is of little practical use, as it is situated within the Arctic circle or near it. The seas are blocked with ice for the greater portion of the year. There is not more than 2,000 miles of coast which can be visited throughout the year, and in the greater portion of this navigation is made difficult by huge masses of floating ice. The whole coast is much indented, and many magnificent natural harbours are to be found in almost every portion. In the north and east there are large inland seas, which are known as Baffin Bay, Davis Strait, Hudson Bay, and the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

Baffin Bay is not really a bay, but a large inland sea, connected with the Arctic Ocean by means of Jones Strait and Lancaster Sound towards the west, while the southern part, connected with the Atlantic Ocean, is known as Davis Strait. Its eastern boundary is formed by Greenland, whilst northward there is an opening into the Arctic Ocean named Robeson Channel. The bay is unnavigable for the greater part of the year. From September to June it is completely frozen over, and during the remainder of the year the floating ice and icebergs prevent its being successfully navigated. Including

Davis Strait, the area of this sea is not less than 360,000 square miles.

Hudson Bay lies west of the district known as Labrador, and is surrounded by the territories formerly known by the name of Hudson Bay Company's territory. Like Baffin Bay it is unnavigable for many months in the year in consequence of the ice. The sea, in its longest part, measures more than 1,000 miles, while the greatest breadth is not less than 600 miles. The area is about 380,000 square miles. The coasts form a large number of safe harbours, whilst the bay contains many small islets. The bay is connected with the Atlantic Ocean by Hudson Strait, and with the Arctic Ocean by Fox Channel.

The Gulf of St. Lawrence lies between Labrador on the north, Newfoundland on the east, Nova Scotia, and Cape Breton Island on the south, and New Brunswick, Quebec, and the St. Lawrence River on the west. Its area is about 69,000 square miles. This sea is not blocked with ice to the same extent as the others, although during the winter large masses of ice float down the river into it, causing the passage to be very difficult. The greatest impediment to navigation is caused by the thick fogs that so frequently prevail, which prevent objects being distinguished at a distance of twenty or thirty yards

Openings.—The openings are very numerous, and would be of greater importance if the seas were not generally impassable on the northern and eastern shores. The most important are :—

North-Mackenzie Bay, Coronation Gulf, and Gulf of Boothia.

East—Chesterfield Inlet, Port Nelson, James Bay, and Mosquito Bay in Hudson Bay, Ungava Bay, Port Manvers, Invucktoke Inlet, Mouth of St. Lawrence, Notre Dame Bay, and Fundy Bay.

West-Queen Charlotte Sound.

The majority of these are safe harbours. Fundy Bay is remarkable for the great height of its tides, which frequently at the spring equinox have a rise of 70 feet, while the ordinary spring tide is more than 30 feet. The damage thereby caused to the shipping is very great.

Capes.—The most northerly point yet discovered is Cape Columbia in Grinnel Land, the latitude being 83°7 North, Cape Race in Newfoundland, 53°30 West longitude, is the furthest east, and North Cape in Graham Island is the furthest west. The chief capes arranged in order are:—

North—Cape Bathurst, Cape Kellet, Cape Maclure, Cape McClintock, Cape Adair,

Cape Kater, Cape Walsingham.

East—Cape Southampton, Cape Churchill, Cape Wolstenholme, Cape Chudleigh, Cape Charles, Cape Bauld, Cape Race, and Cape Sable.

West—Cape Scott, Cape St. James, and North Cape.

Islands.—The number of the islands off the shores of the Dominion is very great, the larger portion being found within the Arctic seas. Their approach is frozen for at least eight months of the year, so that their utility to the civilized world is but little. When not covered with ice, the seas are the scenes of several good whale fisheries. The principal islands, arranged in seas, are:—

Arctic Ocean.—Banks Land, Prince Albert and Victoria Land, King William Land, Prince of Wales Island, North Somerset, Prince Patrick Island, Melville Islands, Bathurst Island, Cornwallis Island, Grinnel Island, North Devon, Grinnel Land, Cockburn

Island, and Fox Land and Cumberland.

Atlantic Ocean.—Southampton Island, Mansell Island, Charles Island, Akpatok Island, Resolution Island, Newfoundland, Cape Breton Island, Prince Edward Island, Sable Island, and Anticosti Island.

Pacific Ocean.—Vancouver Island, and Queen Charlotte Islands.

Straits.—Banks Strait, between Prince Patrick and Melville Islands on the north, and Banks Land and Albert Land on the south; Barrow Strait, between Cornwallis and Bathurst Isles, Prince of Wales Island, and Somerset Island; McClintock Channel, between Victoria Land and Prince of Wales Island, Victoria Strait, between Victoria Land and King William Land; Lancaster Sound, between North Devon and the islands north of Cockburn Islands; Jones Strait, between North Devon and North Lincoln; Smith Sound, Kennedy Channel, and Robeson Channel, between North Lincoln, Ellesmere Land, Grinnell Land, Grant Land, Prudhoe Land and Hall Land on the west; Rowe Welcome, between Southampton and the mainland; Fox Channel, between Southampton Island and Fox Land; Hudson Strait, between Fox Land and Labrador; Davis Strait, between Cumberland and Greenland; Belle Island Strait, between Newfoundland and Labrador; and Queen Charlotte Sound, between Vancouver Island and British Columbia.

Many attempts have been made to find a passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean around the North of America. This passage has been discovered, the course being through Davis Strait, Lancaster Sound, Barrow Strait, and Banks Strait, into the Arctic Sea, and from that sea, through Behring Strait, into the Pacific Ocean. The passage is, however, practically useless, as it is frozen over for eight months of the year, and during the remaining four, navigation is rendered extremely dangerous by the large icebergs and

masses of floating ice.

Mountains.—The whole of the western portion of the Canadian Dominion is occupied by a high plateau, averaging 2,000 feet in its most northern part, 3,000 feet in the central, and about 6,000 feet in the extreme south. This is a continuation of the elevated tablelands found in the United States and Mexico. Its eastern ridge forms a range known as the Rocky Mountains. This range runs through the entire length of North America,

and attains its greatest height a little north of the British frontier. The highest peak is Mount Brown, 15,900 feet; Mount Hooker, 15,300 feet, is the second in height on British

territory.

The entire plateau is more than 500 miles in width, and can only be crossed at certain parts, where there are breaks in the chain, called *Passes*. These passes do not resemble those of the Old World in being narrow and possessing precipitous sides, but they are broad expanses of prairie land, several miles in width, and of a varying clevation. The most important pass in the Dominion is the Vermilion Pass, which crosses the Rocky Mountains at a height of less than 5,000 feet in the highest portion, while in other parts it is frequently less than 4,000 feet.

The western ridge is formed by a series of ranges, known as the Cascade Range in British Columbia, and the Pacific Range further north. These run very close to the shore, the only breaks in them for many miles being the beds of numerous torrents. Several of the peaks have a considerable elevation, while Mount St. Elias and Mount Fairweather are amongst the highest on the continent. The height of Mount St. Elias is about 17,500 feet. In addition to these mountains there are numerous lesser eleva-

tions in each of the provinces.

Rivers.—The whole of Canada is an intricate network of rivers and lakes The rivers are of considerable magnitude, and many of them are admirably adapted for navigation. If it were not for the frosts that annually prevent the use of a large proportion for these purposes, no country would be better fitted with natural means of internal communication. The following table gives particulars of the various rivers. Those flowing into the Arctic Ocean are in Division I., and those of the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans are in Divisions II. and III. respectively, whilst the rivers flowing into lakes are in Division IV.:—

Div.	River.	Rises.	Flows Into.	Length.	Area of Drainage
I. {	Mackenzie Peace Liard Peel Coppermine Great Fish	Great Slave Lake	MackenzieBay  Coronation Gulf Adelaide Bay	Miles.  800  200 660	Square Miles. 660,000 4,000 12,000
11	Chesterfield Churchill Nelson Albany Moose East Maine Great Whale Caniapuscow Whale Hamilton St. Lawrence Saquenay Ottawa	Churchill Lake Lake Winnipeg Lake Joseph Lake Superior Central Labrador Central Labrador Labrador Labrador Labrador Labrador Labrador Labrador Under Character Labrador Labrador Labrador Lake Ontario Wotchish Mountains	Hudson Bay Hudson Bay Hudson Bay Hudson Bay Hudson Bay Hudson Bay Ungava Bay Ungava Bay Belle Isle Strait Gulf of St. Lawrence	900	207,000*
111.	Fraser	Rocky Mountains	Pacific Ocean	600	7,000
IV. {	Saskatchewan Athabasca	Near Mount Hooker Near Mount Brown	Lake Winnipeg Athabasca Lake	1200	150,000

<sup>\*</sup> Not including the drainage of the great lakes.

The Mackenzie River flows from the western extremity of the Great Slave Lake, but its remote source may be said to be that of the River Athabasca, which rises near Mount Brown in the Rocky Mountains. The river St. Lawrence flows from the eastern extremity of Lake Ontario, and is navigable for 600 miles for all vessels not exceeding 600 tons burthen. It receives several important tributaries, all of which can be navigated by small vessels. Lake Ontario is connected with Lake Erie by the Niagara River, celebrate I for its magnificent waterfalls.

Lakes.—The great plain is occupied by an immense number of fresh water lakes, of greater magnitude than those found in any other continent. Their waters abound with a variety of fish, which form excellent articles of food. The united area of these lakes is so great that it is estimated they contain more than one-half of the fresh water on the globe. The greater portion lie within well-defined river basins, the names of which are shown in the following table:—

Lake.	SITUATION.	Length.	Breadth	Area.	River Basin
Nipissing	50 miles North of Lake Superior	Miles.	Miles.	Sq. Miles.	
Superior	Between United States and Canada	350	150	32,000	
Huron }	Between United States and Canada, East of Superior	250	200	20,000	
Erie {	Between United States and Canada, South-east of Huron	240	55	9,600	St.
Ontario {	Between United States and Canada, East of Erie	210	50	6,300	
Grand	250 miles North of Lake Ontario	75	48	2,600	
Lake St. John	An expansion of Saguenay River	45	40	1,400	)
Great Bear	North-west Province	200	150	11,000	
Great Slave	280 miles South of Great Bear Lake	300	80	12,000	
Aylmer	North-east of Great Slave Lake	50	45	1,500	
Athabasca	160 miles South of Great Slave Lake	222	50	3,000	} Mackenzie
Wollaston	75 miles South-east of Athabasca	70	50	1,900	
Deer	South of Lake Wollaston	120	48	2,400	
Lesser Slave	300 miles South-east of Lake Athabasca	90	12	800	)
Winnipeg		$\begin{array}{c c} 295 \\ 120 \end{array}$	70	9,000	
Winnepegos Manitoba	75 miles East of Lake Winnipeg	110	50	3,000	
Salt Lake	South-east of Winnepegos	76	60 74	2,000	
	South-east of Lake Winnipeg, be-	10	(*	1,900	
Lake of the Woods	tween United States and Canada \	110	40	1,500	
Rainy {	Between United States and Canada, East of Lake of Woods	120	8	600	

The most important lakes are those connected with the St. Lawrence River. Of these the most westerly are the highest, the elevation diminishing towards the Atlantic Ocean. Lake Superior lies 600 feet above the sea level, and Lakes Michigan and Huron are about 20 feet lower. Farther eastward lies Lake Erie, with an elevation of 570 feet. Between Lake Erie and Lake Ontario there is a fall of 330 feet, the latter lake being 240 feet above the sea. The stream connecting the two lakes is known as the Niagara River, and in this river the celebrated Niagara Falls have been formed, their depth being 162 feet. The river is divided at the summit of the fall by a small island, the larger portion of the water falling on the Canadian side of the river. A bridge now crosses the river just above the falls.

In addition to the lakes given there are many others of less size, forming a most complicated water system, and distributed throughout the Dominion; they are, however,

most numerous in the south-eastern portion.

Most of the lakes are of great depth. Those best known have been discovered to contain water of greater depth than many inland seas. Lake Ontario is estimated to

possess an average depth of 5,000 feet, whilst that of Lakes Huron and Michigan is rather

more than 1,000 feet. Lake Superior has an average depth of 900 feet.

As the majority of these lakes are connected both with other lakes and with rivers, they are of immense importance in the internal communications of the country. This water supply enables much of the produce of the backwoods to be floated down to the civilised and inhabited districts, which otherwise could never have been effected from the want of proper conveyance.

Plains.—All the country east of the Rocky Mountains forms a large plain, bounded eastward by the Atlantic Ocean and Hudson Bay. Throughout the whole of this

extensive region there are but a few hills, none of which are important.

The southern portion of this plain is fertile and covered with immense forests, but northward the land becomes exceedingly stony and nearly barren, the only vegetation being a species of grass of poor quality. The earth underneath the surface is perpetually frozen, while a winter of great severity occupies nine months of the year.

Between Hudson Bay and the Atlantic Ocean lies an extensive tract of considerable elevation, forming the district known as Labrador. The average height of this plateau is not less than 2,000 feet, and the severity of the winter and barrenness of the soil are so

great, that it is but a wide piece of waste land.

Throughout the whole of this plain an immense number of lakes, together with almost innumerable rivers, are found, providing the land with a good supply of water, and

splendid facilities for internal communication.

The plain is a continuation of the Great Plain of North America, originating in Mexico, and stretching throughout the continent. The southern portion is, however, separated from the northern by a chain of great lakes that are connected with the River St. Lawrence. These are the largest fresh water lakes in the world, and for many miles they form the boundary between Canada and the United States of North America.

Climate.—For the purpose of effectually considering the chief features of Canadian climate, the whole Dominion may be divided into three portions; (a) the northern—that north of the Arctic circle; (b) the central, stretching towards the great Southern lakes;

and (c) the district in the neighbourhood of these lakes.

In the former, the ground is perpetually frozen at the depth of a few feet, and the summer is remarkably short. Probably the most severe winter in the world is that of the country lying north of the Chesterfield Inlet, between the Gulf of Boothia and the Mackenzie Mouth, and the tract near the north-eastern portion of Hudson Bay. Here the mean winter temperature is 23° below Zero, while that for the whole year is about 2° Fahrenheit, or 30° below freezing. In this portion of the Dominion there is no vegetation.

The central portion may be characterized as very cold, the winter being long and severe, whilst the summer is short but warm. During its duration the growth of vegetation is extremely rapid. Snow generally lies on the ground from October to May.

The southern district, which surrounds the lakes, has its extremes of heat and cold greatly modified by those vast inland seas, so that it enjoys a temperate climate, similar to that of England, but with greater variations. The winter is indeed much more severe, but is not to be compared with that of the northern or central parts. The mean winter temperature is about 20°, whilst that of the whole year is 44°. The districts in the immediate vicinity of the lakes are more temperate than those more remote, and this feature is so marked, that on the shores of Lakes Erie and Ontario, the vine, peach, and apple are grown to perfection. In this district the snow is generally on the ground for five months, from January to May.

The extremes of temperature are at first troublesome to English emigrants, but they are gradually accepted as the normal state, and fur wrappings during the winter months are general. In spite of its severity the climate is very healthy, the air being almost invariably pure and clear, while the cold is apparently diminished by the absence of

wind.

The long period during which the frost and snow prevent the use of the ground is the only drawback experienced by agriculturists. This time, however, is the season of enjoyment throughout the Dominion. The snow-storms are generally over by December, when the ground is thickly covered with snow. This provides excellent roads for the inhabitants of the thinly populated regions, who drive in sleighs to visit their friends, over tracts through which no road could be made by the few inhabitants. The season of enjoyment continues throughout the whole of the three succeeding months, the cold being

no preventive.

In March the snow disappears from the settled districts, and the farmer begins his labours. Vegetation has already been progressing under the snow, and it soon bursts forth in great luxuriance. By the end of June strawberries are ripe, and potatoes and peas soon follow. In the southern portion the corn harvest is generally in August.

The rainfall of Canada is in excess of that found in countries of corresponding latitude in the Old World, the average being about 48 inches, or nearly 20 inches more than that

at London.

It may be mentioned here that the severe cold often causes the nose and extremities to be frost-bitten; the giving of information regarding this event being an important portion of Canadian civility.

At Quebec the sentries are frequently removed from their posts to prevent their being

frozen to death while on guard.

\*Minerals.—The mineral resources of Canada are almost unlimited. Nearly every known mineral is found in some portion of it, although as yet this great source of wealth has not been worked to any considerable extent. The copper mines are amongst the largest in the world; the lead is frequently rich in silver, and the south-western district is famous for its auriferous deposits. One of the most remarkable of its productions is the mineral oil, known as petroleum, which is found in natural springs. With a little purification this oil is used for lamps as paraffin. A more elaborate process makes it a useful lubricating oil. Besides the amount required for home consumption an immense quantity is annually exported.

The chief minerals found within the Dominion are coal, cobalt, copper, gold, iron, lead, lignite, manyanese, platinum, zinc, sandstone, marble and slate, together with petroleum.

Vegetation.—The whole of the southern, and a portion of the central part consist of a succession of thick forests and broad prairies. These latter are generally covered with a thick species of grass, providing food for numerous buffaloes and other herbaceous animals, while the forests contain nearly every tree found within the north temperate zone in the Old or New Worlds. These trees form the great natural wealth of the country, as well as provide the chief occupation of the inhabitants. The chief trees are the ash, elm, ouk, beech, birch, white and red pine, maple, black and white cedar, fir, spruce, hickory, juniper, wilnut, chestnut, and hemlock. The maple is probably one of the most remarkable. From this tree the colonists obtain a juice, which gives them their supply of sugar, known as maple sugar. None of the European cereals are natives of North America, although they are readily introduced, and can be cultivated with great success.

In the month of October, the forests present a gorgeous appearance, in consequence of the leaves changing their colours after the early frosts. The hues are glowing and varied, and the scene presented to the eye is magnificent. This period of the year is known as the "Indian Summer," and some of the most pleasant weather during the whole year

occurs at this time, just before the severity of the winter sets in.

The northern portion of the central district does not possess this great variety of vegetation, as the trees gradually become stunted in growth. The majority of those found in the south are not seen, but a few trees are left. In the extreme norther the only trees found are a few larches, aspens, poplars, alders, hazels, and willows. Within the arctic circle no trees are found, the only kind of vegetation being a few lichens and mosses and some dwarf shrubs.

The soil of the greater portion of the country is remarkably good, and but for the severity of the climate, nothing could be more suitable for agriculturists. There are, however, considerable tracts of barren land in the neighbourhod of Lake Manitoba, in the north-west country, and around the Mackenzie Lakes, as well as in that portion which is is almost perpetually frozen.

Zoology.—The native animals of North America do not include those which are most useful to man, as neither the elephant, horse, ox or ass are amongst them, although

<sup>\*</sup> The districts where the various minerals are found will be mentioned in the description of the provinces.

the horse is now found in a wild state, having been introduced soon after the discovery of America by some Spaniards. The variety, however, is very great, the majority found within British territory being fur animals that have long provided an important item in the export trade of the provinces. These animals are found in the large forests and prairies in great numbers, but the more destructive are becoming exterminated in the settled regions. The more important animals are the white or polar bear, grizzly bear, wolf, white fox, silver fox, sable, marten, bison, reindeer, badger, coney, ermine, lynx, weasel, musk rat, beaver, elk and other deer, and other.

The birds, which are numerous, are chiefly allied to European species; amongst them

are wild swans, turkeys, geese, woodcocks, snipes, eagles, kites, and hawks.

The only reptiles of note are the puff adder and two species of rattlesnake.

Another great source of natural wealth is found in the fisheries. These are chiefly within the River and Gulf of St. Lawrence, and on the Western coast. The fish are both numerous and of a very valuable description. They contain the salmon, herring, cod, mackerel, trout, halibut, sturgeon, carp, and sole. Large quantities are regularly exported.

Inhabitants.—The white population do not number more than about 3,727,000, these being comprised of emigrants, and their descendants, from all the countries of Northwest Europe and from the United States. The portion eastward of the lakes of St. Lawrence is chiefly occupied by the descendants of the old French emigrants, who established themselves in that district during the period when it was a colony of France. These people have not the persevering habits and intrepidity of the Anglo-Canadian, and the success of the latter, instead of stimulating their ardour, makes them jealous and desirous of checking that progress.

Throughout the remainder of the Dominion the people of British origin are predominant, although Dutch, Norwegians, Germans, and Americans form a large minority. For them no danger is sufficient to cause pusillanimity, and no labour is too arduous for them to perform. Their ingenuity is equal to their industry, and they have already conquered many formidable obstacles, and entitled their country to be ranked as the

foremost of the British Colonies.

The laws of the colony enable the inhabitants to retain a great many of their old modes of conducting business and legal transactions. The French portion, known as Quebec, retains a code of laws almost exactly the same as that of France during the days

of the "Old Monarchy."

The native inhabitants number less than 400,000. They consist of Indians in the south and Esquimaux in the north. The Indians are of two races, the Ojibeeways and the Mohawks. They are principally engaged in a hunting life, only a few having settled down to agricultural pursuits and embraced Christianity. Their homes are chiefly limited to the lands near Lakes Superior, Huron, and Erie. Their number is rapidly decreasing.

The Esquimaux are a diminutive race of seal and whale hunters, found within the

northern portion.

The episcopal Church of England has several dioceses in the various provinces, and there are also ministers of a great number of dissenting sects. Roman Catholicism is the prevailing religion throughout the province of Quebec, but elsewhere Protestantism is predominant.

A great number of emigrants annually leave the British Islands for Canada. Those of British origin alone within the last ten years have numbered nearly 200,000.

Industrial Occupations.—The population of the country is so small and its area so great, that the want of labourers of every class is the great necessity. Many manufactures cannot be conducted from the impossibility of finding native-born workmen; those who annually emigrate into the country are in good demand. Like all young colonies, Canada suffers from a want of capital. This is, however, becoming gradually supplied, and it is generally accepted that the Dominion of Canada will, at an early period, be one of the World's great countries.

Agriculture.—As in all new countries, the clearance and culture of the soil form the chief employment of the great mass of the people. The native vegetation is remarkably valuable, immense quantities of timber being annually exported. When the ground is cleared, the soil is generally found to be of great fertility, and possessed of powers astonishing to English farmers. Land has been known to produce more than thirty

successive crops, all of them of good description, without the ground receiving any nourishment in the shape of manure. No agriculture can be carried on within the northern or north-central portion, on account of the frosts, but elsewhere most of the European cereals have been introduced with great success. The seed is sown in April, and the harvest is gathered by the end of August. Wheat, barley, rye, oats, buckwheat, and maize are the most extensively cultivated, and tobacco, hemp, and flax, which are indigenous plants, also receive considerable attention. With the aid of capital and additional labourers, sufficient grain could be grown in Canada to satisfy the whole of the demands of the British Islands. Many European fruits grow to perfection. The cotton plant grows in a native state in Lower Canada, and the forests provide a tree from which the sugar required by the labourers is easily obtained. Large numbers of live stock are now kept.

Throughout the provinces, except within the Arctic circle, a large number of men are engaged as trappers, their object being to obtain furs by killing the various wild animals which abound in the country. For many years the Canadian fur trade has been the largest in the world. The chief furs exported are badyer, bear, beaver, deer, coney, marten,

lynx, rabbit, seal, minx, otter, musk rat, wolf, weasel, and fox.

The Fisheries off the western and eastern shores are also an important item of native industry. It is estimated that the annual value of their produce is more than £10,000,000. Those within the River and Gulf of St. Lawrence are the most important. The salmon

fishery in that portion is the greatest in the world.

Manufactures.—These are at present confined to those articles necessarily made in every country for home consumption. The manufacture of some articles is extended, as in the case of flour, of which a large quantity is annually exported. The larger towns manufacture carpets, blankets, and woollen and linen goods, but in very limited quantities. In every province the various mills indicate the occupation of many inhabitants. Artizans of nearly every description are in great request and readily find employment.

Mining.—The mineral resources are comparatively neglected. Labour and capital would speedily cause Canada to become one of the greatest mining countries in the world. At present the copper mines around Lake Superior are amongst the largest that are worked in any country. Gold is found in large quantities in the west, while plenty of coal is obtained from the south-eastern portion. The various minerals found have been already mentioned on page 78.

Commerce.—The timber trade was formerly by far the largest item in the commercial transactions of Canada, but it is now being gradually superseded by the produce of agriculture. The majority of manufactured articles are imported from the British Islands or the United States. The annual value of the external trade is rapidly increasing, and at present amounts to 36 millions sterling.

IMPORTS---Coal, metal, cordage, cotton, woollen, and various other manufactures from the British Islands; molasses, sugar, rum, and coffee from Jamaica; and beef, pork, rice, and tobacco from the United States. More than half the trade is with the British islands, its value in 1877-8 being about 11 millions. The whole import trade during the same year was estimated at £19,125,084.

EXPORTS.—Timber, furs, pot and pearl ashes, grains, flour, gold, and preserved fish are exported in large quantities to the British Islands; wheat, flour, beef, and pork to the West Indies; and timber, wheat, flour, butter, and live stock to the United States.

Within the last few years a considerable trade in dead cattle has been opened with

Great Britain.

The value of the export trade during the year 1877-8 was £16,298,267, nearly  $7\frac{1}{2}$  millions being exported to England. The timber exported was valued at nearly two millions.

Means of Communication.—In the whole of the settled portion, where the population is at all numerous, good roads have been constructed, and conveyance is easy by means of horses and waggons. Where the population is very scattered there are no good roads, those in use having been roughly formed by the settlers residing near them. Communication between individuals is rare in these districts, except in winter, when the snow forms a good road for the sleigh.

The rivers and lakes provide extensive means of communication. The tributaries of the St. Lawrence are in most cases broad, navigable streams, down which the produce of the interior floats to the towns on its banks. Further west the great lakes provide the same means, being connected with each other by small rivers. Where the rivers are unnavigable through falls or rocks, the inhabitants have cut canals. This has been done in the upper course of the St. Lawrence as well as in several other places. By this means large vessels have been enabled to sail up the river to Lake Erie, and navigation by small vessels is possible through the whole of the great lakes. With comparatively little outlay, communication could be effected between the mouths of the St. Lawrence and the Mackenzie.

The railways were not commenced until 1857, but they are already in a very advanced state. In the more settled portions there are four extensive lines connecting the larger towns. A line is now in process of construction which will connect the eastern and western portions of the Dominion. The present railways are connected with several of the chief railways of the United States, the boundary being frequently crossed by the lines.

Efficient means of communication are found at present only in the south-eastern and extreme western portions, where the settlers reside in the greatest numbers. Northward and westward are found large tracts of forest, and further north of barren land, presenting little or no sign of ever having been visited by man. The few trappers whose calling causes them to make their abode here, have to find their way by natural guide-posts, discovered by their own experience.

Government.—The Dominion of Canada was first constituted in 1867. Previously each colony was under separate legislation and government, the latter, however, being a parliamentary one. In 1867 the Home Government passed a bill forming the colonies of Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Cape Breton Isle into one dominion, at the same time providing clauses enabling the remaining North American possessions to become incorporated. This is already the case with all the colonies except Newfoundland.

The Sovereign of the British Islands is the acknowledged head of the Executive, the authority being vested in a Governor-General appointed by the Crown, and assisted

by a council called the Privy Council.

The Legislative power is in the hands of a parliament composed of two houses, the Senate and the House of Commons. The Senate consists of 77 members summoned by the Governor-General, while the House of Commons contains 206 members elected by the different provinces. They have to seek re-election at least every five years. The following table shows the members of parliament representing each province:—

	0	*
Province.	Senate.	House of Commons.
Ontario		
QUEBEC	24	65
Nova Scotia	)	( 21
NEW BRUNSWICK	24	{ 16
PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLAND	)	(6
British Columbia	3	6
MANITOBA	2	4

The authority of this parliament is almost as great as if the colony were perfectly free from British authority. The authorities at home never interfere except in affairs of imperial policy, or when their advice may be solicited. The Dominion is as perfectly free

a country as any republic, except in name.

Each province has a local administrative and legislative council, that has power to deal with all provincial affairs. At the head of this authority is the Lieutenant-Governor, who receives his appointment from the Governor-General. The laws in each province vary considerably, being generally those introduced soon after its colonisation, with such alterations as the Canadian parliament have deemed necessary or advisable. The majority are, consequently, British laws, but those in Quebec are the laws of the old French Monarchy. It is probable that the Canadian parliament will soon form one code of laws for all the provinces, providing for the exceptional circumstances connected with each province.

The annual revenue is large, considering the number of the population and the age of the colony. In 1877-8 the expenditure was rather more than £300,000 in excess of the revenue—probably a result of the extremely severe commercial crises passed through. The total amount of the receipts was £4,532,721, while the expenditure amounted to £4,832,726. At the end of the year 1877, the Dominion of Canada had a public debt amounting to £35,892,493.

The seat of government is at Ottawa, a small town of 20,000 inhabitants, on the

right bank of the river Ottawa, in Ontario.

Provinces.—Formerly each of the provinces which now form the Dominion of Canada was a separate colony, having no connection with each other. A large tract in the north-east and north-west was governed by two companies—the Hudson Bay Company, and the North West Company. In 1867 the home Government decided that the colonies of Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick should be united and form the Dominion of Canada. In 1871 Hudson Bay territory and the North West territories were annexed under the names of Manitoba and the North West Provinces, and British Columbia and Vancouver's Island were admitted into the Confederation. Since that period another province—Prince Edward's Island—has been incorporated (1873). Each province has a legislative and administrative assembly for the conduct of local affairs, and also elects members for the general parliament of the Dominion. The Governor-General of the Dominion appoints a Lieutenant-Governor to each province. The following table shows the provinces, their areas, populations, and chief towns:—

Province.	Area.	Population.	CHIEF TOWNS.
CANADA PROPERONTARIO	Square Miles. 301,000 107,000	2,812,367 1,620,851	Ottawa. Toronto, 79,000; London, Ottawa, Kingston, Hamilton, Niagara, Chatham, Cornwall, Cobourg, Sand-
QUEBEC	194,000	1,191,516	wich, Southampton, Liston, Whitby.  Quebec, 60,000; Montreal, 107,000; Three Rivers, 12,000; Sherbrook, Richmond, La Prairie, Bedford, Huntingdon, Tadoussac, Fraser-
Nova Scotia	22,000	387,800	ville, Coteau du Lac, Berthier.  Halifax, 29,600; Lunenburg, Liver- pool, Yarmouth, Falmouth, Truro, Annapolis, Amherst, Pictou, Guys-
Cape Breton Island New Brunswick	3,120 28,000	75,834 285,599	perg, Sherbrooke, Shelburne. Sydney, Port Hood, Arichat. Frederickton, 8,000; St. Johns 30,000; Liverpool, Newcastle, Chatham, Stanley, Campeltown, Bathurst, Dalhousie, Cardigan,
Prince Edward Island Manitoba	2,190 15,000	94,020 40,000	Sux Vale. Charlottetown, 8,800; Georgetown, Princetown. Winnipeg, Fort Garey, Fort William.
NORTH-WEST Pro- VINCES	2,980,000	80,000	Battleford, Fort Good Hope, Fort Fort Franklin, Fort George, Fort York.
British Columbia	218,000	50,000	New Westminster, Fort Hope, Fort Langley, Fort Simpson, Fort McLeod, Stella, Fort St. James, Fort Conolly, Fort Alexandria, Fort Thompson.
VANCOUVER ISLAND	13,000		Victoria, 5,600; Seymour, Cooptie.

History.—In 1497 John and Sebastian Cabot, who were sent on a voyage of discovery by Henry VII., discovered the islands of Newfoundland, Prince Edward, and Cape Breton, as well as those portions of the mainland now known as Labrador, Quebec, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia. They claimed the country on behalf of the English sovereign, but no attempt was made to form any settlement either at that time or immediately after.

Early in the 16th century the French made many attempts to colonise these portions of the northern continent, but none were successful until 1598, when they established a permanent settlement in Nova Scotia and on Prince Edward Island. Ten years later a second permanent colony was established in Quebec province. The colonies now seemed likely to prosper, and probably would have done so but for the absurd conditions imposed on them by the French Government.

The first English colony was founded at Virginia in 1611, and another in 1621 seemed to indicate that the English people were at last stirring. Nothing important, however, resulted. During the French war (1629) the Canadian possessions of the French were

captured, but were restored in 1633.

In 1668 Hudson, who was in the employ of the Anglo-Russian Company, was left by his crew on the north-eastern coast to perish, but he afterwards discovered the bay bearing his name, and managed to reach England, where he formed a company, which, in 1670, obtained a charter from Charles II., placing in their hands the entire trade of the country north, east, and west of Hudson Bay.

At the same period British colonisation in America, south of Canada, commenced vigorously, and these colonies were soon in a flourishing condition. From their success, however, ennsity with the French settlers of Canada soon resulted, and from 1670 to 1760 it was little more than one long war between the colonists of the two nations. In 1759 three English armies marched into Canada. One, under General Wolfe, captured Quebec, and in 1760, Montreal also surrendered. This completed the conquest of Canada, and a treaty signed in 1763 ceded these colonies to Britain.

Ever since their conquest the colonies have firmly supported the English. On the rebellion of the colonists south of Canada, the Canadians lent every assistance to the Crown, but the result was the acknowledgment of the independence of those states by Britain under the name of the United States (1783).

In 1777 the English formed a colony in Vancouver Island, and emigration to all the colonies was encouraged.

The success of the Hudson Bay Company caused another company, the North-West Company, to be formed, and these companies soon turned the whole of America, north of Canada, into a wide hunting ground. Their rivalry and animosity caused their compulsory union in 1813, the united companies retaining the whole of the fur trade until 1859, when their license was revoked, the whole of this vast territory being annexed by the Crown in 1869.

A settlement was made in the district around the southern part of Lake Winnipeg in 1813, and called the Red River Settlement. This is now called Manitoba.

As early as 1811, the inhabitants of the United States claimed the right of trading in the northern portion of the continent, but by a treaty signed a little later the right of establishing trading stations or companies north of the 49° parallel of latitude was acknowledged as that of the British Islands only. In 1846 this parallel was confirmed as the boundary between English territory and the United States.

The dividing line between Cape Breton Island and the United States was determined in 1840 by a treaty under the direction of Lord Ashburton.

British Columbia was colonised in 1858, and with Vancouver Island was at first a portion of Hudson Bay territory, but passed over to the Crown, as that Company did not fulfil the conditions imposed on them.

The Dominion of Canada was created in 1867 by the union of Canada proper, formed by the compulsory union of Ontario and Quebec in 1840, and New Brunswick, Neva Scotia, and Prince Edward Island.

#### CANADA.

Situation.—Canada is composed of two provinces, Ontario and Quebec. The former embraces the whole of the country on the northern shores of Lakes Superior, Huron, Erie, and Ontario, as far eastward as 74° 30′ west long. The latter occupies the banks of the St. Lawrence from this point to the sea.

Natural Features.—The greater portion of the country consists of level plains. There are few hills, the most considerable being those lying between Lake Huron and Lakes Erie and Ontario, in Ontario. A continuation of the Green Hills runs through that portion of Quebec lying south of the St. Lawrence. On the north-eastern frontier of Quebec are the Wotchesh Mountains.

The rivers, which are numerous and large, are well adapted for agricultural or commercial purposes. The more important are Spanish River, French River, Severn, Maitland, Sydenham, Thames, Grand River, and Ottawa River, in Ontario; and St. Francis, St. Maurice, Sanguenay, Outarde River, Manicougan, and Great Cascapedia River, in

Quebec.

The lakes are very numerous, and comprise many hundreds of small lakes in addition to those previously given. The chief of these smaller lakes are Lake St. Clair, between Lake Huron and Lake Michigan; Lake Simcoe, Lake Nipissing, Lake Tamagamengue, Meiskoka, Royale, and Shembanicon Lakes, in Ontario; and Grand Lake, Lake St. John, Lake Manicougan, and Matepedia Lake, in Quebec.

The rivers and lakes form the means of almost perfect internal communication. The only obstacle is the numerous rapids which occur at intervals in the St. Lawrence and some of the chief rivers. These rapids are avoided by short canals, cut parallel with the river. By the aid of these canals a vessel of large size can now be laden in Lake Huron or Lake Michigan, and convey a cargo to any port in the world.

The mineral productions of Ontario are extremely valuable. The country in the neighbourhood of the great lakes abounds in *copper*, *iron*, *lead*, and *zinc*; and *gold* is found in less quantities. The peculiar mineral oil, called *petroleum*, is also a product of

this district.

The soil of Ontario is richer than that of Quebee; but both contain valuable vegetation, a description of which has already been given. Nearly, if not quite all, those products are found in Ontario, and the majority in Quebec. The animals are all found in the least populous districts; the more destructive are being exterminated as civilization advances.

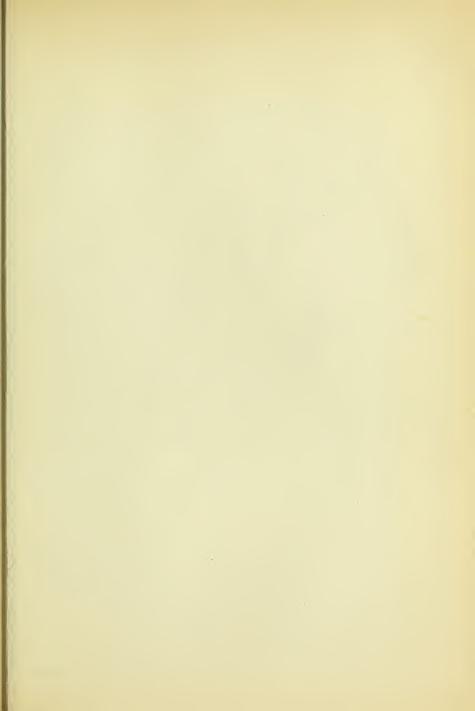
The eastern portion is colder than the western, but both provinces enjoy a healthy atmosphere, and the cold can always be guarded against. The mean summer temperature at Montreal is 72°, at Toronto 69°, and at Quebec 70°; while the winter mean is at Montreal 15½°, at Toronto 24°, and at Quebec 16°. The general climatic features have been already given.

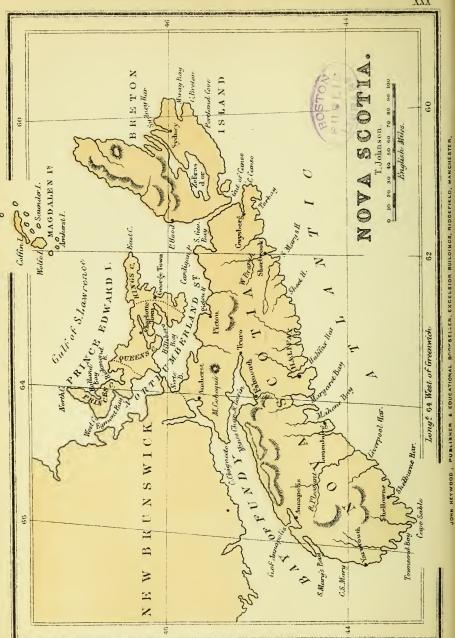
People, &c.—More than two and three-quarter millions of the 3,727,000 who form the population of the Dominion are found in the two provinces of Ontario and Quebec. Agriculture, mining, fishing, and manufactures are practised throughout. The province of Ontario is making rapid advances in agriculture, and its mineral resources are becoming developed. The British race is the most numerous in Ontario, the French in Quebec. Each of the provinces has a Lieutenant-Governor, and their local legislations are quite distinct.

Towns.—In Ontario: Toronto, on Lake Ontario, is the capital of the province of that name. It is the great centre of the Canadian wheat trade. Ottawa is on a river of the same name. The Rideau Canal connects Ottawa with the town of Kingston on the

east of Lake Ontario. Kingston is the second town in size.

In Quebec.—Quebec, on the north of the St. Lawrence, is the great centre of the trade between England and Canada. Quebec, next to Gibraltar, is the strongest fortress in the world. It consists of two towns—the upper town, on a high rock, strongly fortified; and the lower town, built at the foot of the same rock. The latter is the seat of trade. Three Rivers is an important port. Montreal lies on an island at the junction of the Ottawa and St. Lawrence. This town is a place of great trade, and has several small manufactures.





AND 18, PATERNOST"R SQUARE, LONDON, E.C.

### NOVA SCOTIA.

Situation.—This province consists of a peninsula south of New Brunswick. It is washed on the south-east by the Atlantic Ocean. Northumberland Sound is on the north, and the Bay of Fundy and New Brunswick on the west.

Natural Features.—The coast line is extensive, measuring more than 800 miles, exclusive of all the inlets. The shores contain many magnificent harbours, where vessels of any size can lie with perfect safety. The best known are Torbay, Halifax Harbour, Murgaret Bay, Mahone Bay, Liverpool Harbour, and Shelburne Harbour on the eastern coast; Transvaal Bay on the south; St. Mary Bay and the Gulf of Annapolis on the west; and Pictou Harbour and St. George's Bay on the north. The northern harbours are unavailable during the winter, being blocked with ice. Halifax Harbour is the one most generally used, and is said to be one of the finest in the world.

The interior is chiefly a table-land of moderate height, crossed by occasional ranges of low hills. One of the best known of the elevated peaks is *Mount Cobequi*, in the northwest of the peninsula. The rivers are of necessity short, but they are very numerous and frequently spread into small lakes. It is estimated that one-fifth of the area is comprised of gulfs, bays, rivers, and lakes. The longest river is the *Pleasant*, rising near the hills of the western coast. The climate of Nova Scotia is very similar to the south-eastern part of Canada, but it is not subjected to such extremes.

The minerals are of great value, and in the future will probably be the chief wealth of the province. Gold is widely diffused, and is profitably worked in two or three districts. Coal is found in large quantities, the chief pit worked being near Pictou. Iron of a first-class quality is worked to a slight extent, the greater portion being exported to England. Other minerals worked are gypsum, salt, slate, granite, and sandstone. The grindstones made are of a superior quality, and are exported in large quantities.

Only about 5,000,000 acres of the land are fit for cultivation, the remainder being stony and barren or particularly unfertile. Some portions, however, are possessed of extraordinary fertility, and astonishing crops have been produced. Immense forests still cover large areas, and the lumber trade at present forms the chief occupation of the inhabitants. Amongst the more numerous of the trees are the maple, birch, beech, ash, oak, chestnut, and pine.

The fisheries off the coast are of great value. Large quantities of cod, mackerel, sturgeon, herring, and haddock are captured near the shore, while a few miles out to sea numbers of whales, porpoises, and grampuses are found.

Inhabitants.—The population is chiefly employed in the lumber trade, but mining is a growing industry, and in the future it is probable that the supplies of coal for the eastern portion of the Canadian Dominion will be obtained from Nova Scotia. Agriculture is successfully practised, especially in the north-west, and fishing provides employment for a large proportion of the inhabitants. There is also an important manufacture of cloth.

The export trade is confined to the produce of the soil, forest, or sea, and consists of coal, grindstones, gypsum, timber, flour, oats, and butter.

The imports are chiefly British manufactures and the produce of the West Indies. The shipping of Nova Scotia is more numerous than the whole of the other provinces in British North America.

Towns.—The chief town is *Halifax* on the harbour of that name. It is an important port, possessing the best harbour on the eastern coast of America. The entrance is easy and the bay perfectly safe. There is also a large dockyard, and Halifax has become the principal naval station of Britain in that part of the world. *Pictou* has extensive shipbuilding yards, and is of considerable commercial importance. *Yarmouth* is the most important town in the western portion of the province. *Windsor* is the seat of a university. The other towns are rapidly growing in importance, the chief of them at present being *Lunenburg*, *Falmouth*, *Truro*, *Annapolis*, *Amherst*, *Guysperg*, *Sherbrooke*, and *Shelburne*.

#### CAPE BRETON ISLE.

Situation.—This island forms a portion of the province of Nova Scotia, and is situated off the north-west of that peninsula, being separated from it by a strait known as the Gut of Canso.

Surface.—The coast line is considerably indented on the east, many bays being formed. One large inland sea, communicating with the ocean by two narrow channels, occupies the centre of the island. The shores of this sea are indented by numerous small bays, from which timber is shipped. This bay is known as Le Bras d'Or. The interior may be characterised as hilly, especially towards the north.

Climate and Productions.—The climate is very similar to that of Nova Scotia, and the productions bear as close a resemblance. A coal bed near Sydney is said to be inexhaustible. Copper, gold, and lead are widely diffused, while the building stone is of a very superior description.

The fisheries of Cape Breton are equal in their importance to those of the western

part of the province of Nova Scotia.

Inhabitants.—The lumber trade provides the chief occupation of the people, many of the settlers cutting down the trees on their land. A large quantity of lumber is annually exported to the United States. The only town of size in Cape Breton Isle is Sydney, on the harbour of that name.

Formerly Cape Breton Isle formed a distinct colony; but for several years past it

has been a portion of the province of Nova Scotia.

#### NEW BRUNSWICK.

Situation.—The province known as New Brunswick occupies the whole of the country lying between Quebec, south of the St. Lawrence River, and the province of Nova Scotia. It is bounded on the north by Ristigouche River and Chaleur Bay; on the east by the Gulf of St. Lawrence; on the south by Nova Scotia and the Bay of Fundy; and on the west by the United States.

Surface.—The coast line is indented, and possesses several large and important harbours. The chief of these are Bathurst Bay on the north; Miramichi Bay, Richibucto Bay, Cockayne Harbour, and Verte Bay on the east; Chignecto Bay and St. John's Harbour on the south. The Bay of Fundy is remarkable for its high tides.

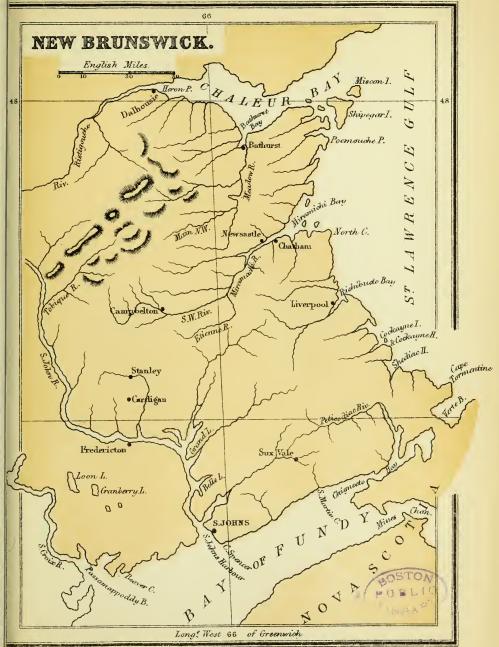
The northern portion consists chiefly of a tableland, having an elevation of about 2,000 feet, crossed at intervals by ranges of low hills, and dotted with a great number of small lakes. Southward the country slopes towards the sea, and consists chiefly of fertile plains, occasionally varied by hills of slight elevation, enclosing valleys of great fertility.

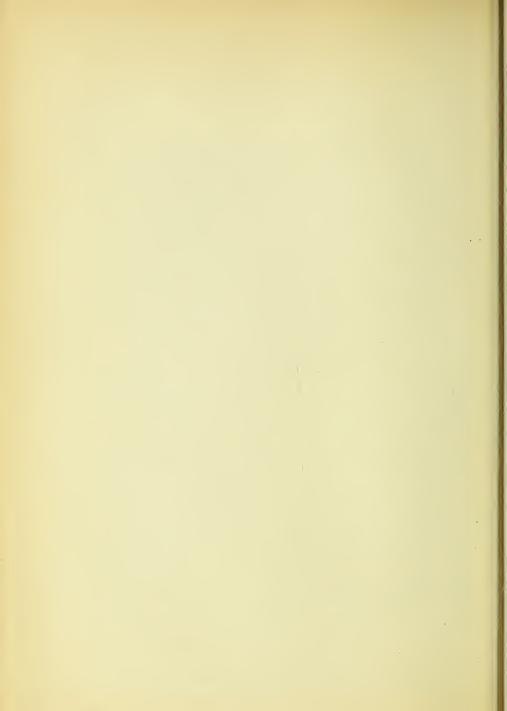
The river system of New Brunswick is nearly equal to that of Canada. The streams are numerous and often navigable for a great distance. The River St. John is navigable for 200 miles of its course by small sloops. The more important rivers are Ristigouche River and Meadow River (tributary Maine), flowing north; Miramichi River (tributaries South West River and Etienne River), flowing east; Peticodiac River and the St. John River (tributaries, Tobique River, Grand River, Lux River, and the St. Croix River), flowing south.

The lakes are numerous, but generally small and little known. The most noteworthy are Grand Lake (an expansion of the St. John River), and Grand Lake in the South.

Climate.—The summer in New Brunswick is of longer duration than that of Canada in general, and the winter is consequently shorter. The atmosphere is considerably more humid, and fogs are frequent, especially in the Bay of Fundy. The harbour of St. John is often enveloped in a thick fog, while a few miles inland it is perfectly clear. In spite of the humidity and fogs the climate is healthy.

**Productions.**—The minerals of New Brunswick are of a varied character, and very valuable. It is estimated that one-fourth of the province is an immense coalfield. The





quantity worked as yet is but little, in consequence of the want of labour and capital. Other important minerals already found are copper, limestone, antimony, and manganese. The deposits of iron are unusually valuable, and several kinds of precious stones have been found, the chief being turquoises and cornelians. The grindstones of New Brunswick rival

those of Nova Scotia.

The soil is almost without exception fertile, the plains and valleys being clad with forests filled with the most beautiful and useful trees of the north temperate zone. The maple is abundant, as well as birch, beech, ash, oak, and elm trees, and a variety of pincs. The timber found in the Miramichi valley is of a superior quality, and that district is the centre of the timber trade. The animals are not so varied in character as those found in the northern part of the Dominion, but they are numerous, and provide annually a considerable quantity of furs. Those chiefly destroyed for their fur are the bear, wolf, and racoon, with numerous smaller animals. The rivers abound with salmon, trout, cod, herring, sturgeon, and haddock.

Inhabitants.—The great majority of the inhabitants are of British descent, but representatives of other European nations are found. A few Indians still remain, but the number is rapidly decreasing, as they appear unable to exist under civilised conditions. The lumber trade provides occupation for a large proportion of the people; but agriculture is increasing in importance yearly. The soil is so good that the labour of cultivation is amply repaid, most European cereals being easily raised. The chief crops grown are those of wheat, barley, oats, flax, and potatoes. Mining is but little practised, but when coal becomes a requisite, the supplies in this province will give it a foremost place, and it may then be expected that the other minerals will receive attention. Fishing is an important branch of industry, and shipbuilding is practised at the town of St. John's in the south-west.

The commercial relations with neighbouring and foreign countries are of considerable magnitude, and are rapidly increasing. The chief of the imports are cotton and woollen goods and other manufactured articles from the British Islands, and rum, sugar, molasses, and other produce from the West Indies. The exports are chiefly comprised of timber in various forms, dried fish, gypsum, coal, grindstones, furs, train oil, and blubber. The inhabitants are mostly members of the Episcopal Church, of which the province is a

colonial diocese, called the diocese of Fredericton.

Towns.—The capital is *Fredericton*, on the southern bank of the St. John River eighty miles from its mouth. The river is navigable by vessels of considerable size up to this point, and small sloops can go up 120 miles further. St. John, at the mouth of the St. John River, is the largest town in the province. It is also the principal port, and, besides extensive docks, possesses shipbuilding yards of considerable size. Liverpool, on Richibucto Bay, and Chatham and Newcastle, on Miramichi Bay, are ports already growing in importance.

The most astonishing feature in the colony is probably the town of St. John, the site of which, not more than 80 years ago, was one vast forest. The town is well-built, and in a picturesque situation. The harbour is magnificent, and the neighbouring district is the best in the colony, so that rapidity of growth might have been anticipated,

although its extent is surprising.

# PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

Situation,—This is a long and narrow island, situated in the south-western portion of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and separated from the coasts of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia by a long and narrow strait called Northumberland Strait.

Surface.—The coasts are extensive and much indented. Two large openings occur, one on the northern and one on the southern coast, extending nearly across the island. The northern opening is called Richmond Bay; that on the south, Hillsborough Bay. The coasts are ice-bound from December to March, but in other respects every natural requisite for successful navigation is easily obtained.

The surface is undulating, but there are no hills of any great height to be found. The rivers are numerous, but necessarily short. The most important is the Hillsborough

river, entering Hillsborough Bay.

Climate and Productions.—The influence of the sea has greatly modified the general features of the Canadian Dominion with respect to climate in this island, the extremes being much less, and the atmosphere considerably more humid. This makes it particularly suitable to emigrants from England, but the province at present seems to possess few attractions to settlers.

The coal beds of Prince Edward Island are of considerable extent, although at present unworked; but the island is not yet known to possess any other mineral, thus contrasting strongly with the Canadian provinces in its immediate neighbourhood.

The soil is reported as possessing greater fertility than that of New Brunswick, the vegetation growing in the greatest profusion right down to the sea shore. Formerly immense forests almost literally covered the country, and although these have been greatly reduced, the existing forests are very considerable.

The greater portion of the *pines* have already been cut down, so that the supply of that wood has become very limited, but there is still a vast number of ash, oak, elm, larch, birch, and beech trees, which provide occupation to a great number of inhabitants.

The animals are few, none of the larger specimens, save an occasional black bear, being ever seen. The smaller animals are the hare, fox, marten, musk rat, minx, and otter.

The fisheries are of great importance; large numbers of cod, mackerel, lobsters, and oysters being annually captured.

Inhabitants.—These number about 80,000, chiefly composed of emigrants from the British Islands or their descendants, a large proportion of them being Scotch. There are also a few families of Indians still remaining in the island.

The lumber trade is the chief source of occupation, and probably will be for several years. The cultivation of the soil is increasing in favour, and the magnificent crops obtained fully justifies its adoption. The chief grains are wheat, Indian corn, barley, and outs. The fisheries find employment for large numbers, but they are not worked to the extent they might be, and have largely fallen into the hands of the United States.

The imports consist of manufactured articles from Britain, and colonial produce from the West Indies, while the exports are composed of the surplus produce of the soil, and of timber. As the soil provides ample food for cattle, sheep, and horses, large numbers are kept for export. The principal items of export are timber, wheat, barley, oats, potatoes, flour, oatmeal, cattle, sheep, and hogs, The neighbouring provinces take a large proportion.

Towns.—Charlottestown, on the western shore of Hillsborough Bay, is the capital of the province, as well as the largest town. It is also the principal port, possessing considerable dockyards, where ship-building is practised to a comparatively large extent. The second port in importance is Georgetown, on the eastern coast. It is the centre of a growing trade.

# MANITOBA.

Situation.—This name is given to the district lying around the southern extremity of Lake Winnipeg. Formerly it was known as the Red River Settlement from the river that flows through it. In 1870 it was constituted a province of Canada and called Manitoba. It lies between the parallels of 49° and 50° 30′ north latitude, and the meridians of 96° to 99° west longitude.

Natural Features.—The climate of Manitoba is healthy, although the winter is more severe than the southern portion of the Dominion generally. The soil is fertile and productive. About one-third is fit for tillage, the remainder forming excellent pasturage. The surface is generally level, with occasional hills, and remarkably well watered by numerous small rivers, principally tributaries to the Red River. The productions are less varied and valuable than those of Canada Proper, although there are forests of considerable magnitude, the usual trees being found within them. As yet no minerals have been discovered in the province. The animals contain all the various kinds found within the Dominion, and they provide a considerable portion of the trading commodity of the province. The chief drawback to the colony is the want of a good road connecting it with Ontario. The colonists have hitherto found this impracticable, in consequence of a broad tract of rocky and swampy ground stretching between the two provinces.

Inhabitants.—The number of its population is rapidly increasing, and doubtless many improvements in the means of communication will soon be made, which will give an additional impetus to the success of the province. In 1871 the population was given as rather less than 12,000, while in 1877 the returns estimate them at no less than 40,000. The original settlers were employés of the Hudson Bay Company, and the province formed a part of their territory. The great influx of population during the last seven years is the result of emigration from the United States. The only good road to the colony is from the United States. The Hudson Bay Company constructed a road connecting the province with that bay, but it was so bad that it has been almost entirely neglected. Agriculture and cattle rearing are the chief forms of employment. The soil, where fit for tillage, produces excellent crops of wheat, barley, oats, and rye, while many other articles are cultivated with fair success. Immense herds of cattle and horses, with sheep, are kept by the colonists, the greater portion being exported to the United States. The inhabitants obtain their manufactured goods and luxuries from the American States, exchanging with them the surplus of their produce.

Towns.—The only town of importance is Winnipeg, the capital of the province, the population of which is about 8,000.

# NORTH WEST PROVINCES.

Situation.—The whole of British North America north and west of Ontario and Quebec, with the exception of the tract surrounding the Fraser River, is included in the north-west provinces. Different portions of it are known as Labrador, Rupert's Land, and Stickeen.

Natural Features.—The entire portion of the country west of the Rocky Mountains is a part of the great plain of North America. The few hills that occur are invariably of slight elevation, and are found at long intervals. The Rocky mountains and the principal rivers have already been mentioned. The latter are so numerous that they make this

district the best watered in the whole world.

This vast region naturally divides itself into several districts, the peculiarities of which are distinctly marked. The first of these may be said to be the country lying immediately north of the United States frontier, west of lake Winnipeg, and consisting of a great expanse of prairie land, forming magnificent pastures for immense herds of buffalo and deer. Northward of this district lies the valley of the Mackenzie, with its great forests of arctic trees, the chief being the pine and alder. This valley is more suitable for cultivation than the other portion of the province in the same latitude. A third district is that known as Labrador, with the country directly north of it. This great expanse of land is one wild waste; nothing can grow upon it, and it appears a lasting abode of frost and snow. Around Hudson Bay the country assumes a different aspect, being covered with the splendid forest trees already mentioned. Within the extreme northern portion the country is a complete desert, and the abode of nothing but a few Esquimaux and wild animals.

Climate.—This is generally severe. The extreme north is perpetually frozen, and the greater portion of the land is principally from this cause entirely unfit for cultivation. South of 57° north latitude, however, it is estimated that there are over 600,000 square miles suitable for agricultural pursuits.

Productions.—The whole of this province was an immense hunting field for the Hudson Bay Company prior to its annexation by the Crown, and it still continues to supply a large proportion of the European fur trade. The most valuable portions for this purpose were the wastes west and east of the bay, where the bear, reindeer, elk, wolf, and for a re still found in large numbers. The prairies are the abode of buffalo, antelope, and a few species of small deer.

Although no minerals are worked, several large coal-beds have been discovered, and evidences of the presence of other minerals in great quantities have been obtained, which leads it to be generally believed that this apparently inhospitable province is really

a store of unlimited mineral wealth.

Inhabitants.—The people are chiefly Indians and Esquimaux, the range of the latter being between Labrador and the Mackenzie River. The entire number of whites is not more than 10,000. The majority are hunters. The woods or lakes provide their chief food. In the southern portion, and near the chief trading post, agriculture has been practised to a slight extent, and, in favourable seasons, with success. The potato and turning grow well, and wheat, barkey, and oats receive some attention.

The country south of 57° west latitude is very suitable for colonists, although the climate is severe. This portion is being opened by the Pacific railroad from Lake Nipisson to British Columbia being cut through it. A good road across the Continent through this portion would be easy of construction, and of great value to the colonists.

Towns.—There are no towns; the nearest approach being trading posts established by the Company with the object of collecting the furs, &c., from the hunters with facility. The chief of these posts are Fort York, Fort Hope, and Fort William.

## BRITISH COLUMBIA.

Situation.—This province includes the part of British North America which lies south of the Simpson River, and west of the Rocky Mountains. Eastward and northward it is bounded by British territory, southward by the United States, and westward by the Pacific Ocean.

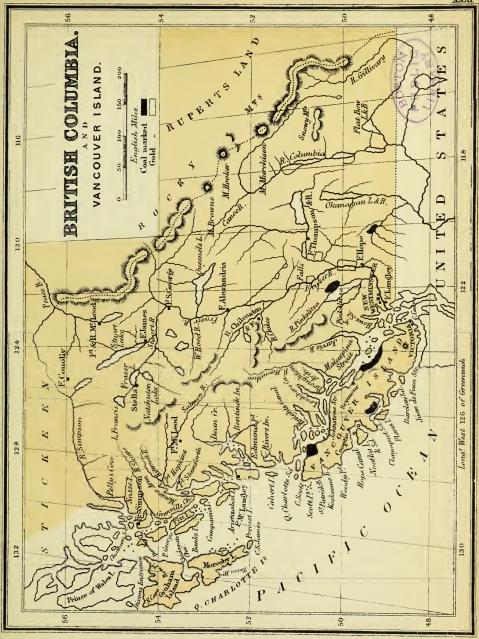
General Features.—The western coast contains several good harbours, the majority of them being portions of Queen Charlotte's Sound. The interior is mountainous. The Rocky Mountains occupy the eastern side, and the Cascade Mountains the coast, the district between them being crossed by numerous spurs from the two ranges. The southwestern portion of the province is lower, and fairly level. The chief heights occur in the Rocky Mountains—Mount Hooker (15,900), Mount Murchison (15,800), and Mount Browne (15,700) being on the frontier. The Cascade Mountains form a wild rockbound coast for many miles, the only intervals being the mouths of the small rivers.

The water supply is good, numerous rivers and lakes being found in various parts. The principal rivers are the Simpson, Kitimat, Sabraon, Homatheo, Jarvis, Fraser (tributaries Pinkslitsa, Chilcoaten, West Rood, and Thompson), and the upper sources of the Columbia (tributaries Okanagan, and Gillwarry). The Fraser River is by far the most important, its valley occupying the greater portion of the country between the two mountain ranges, or more than one-half of the province. Its length is about 600 miles. The lakes are of considerable magnitude, the chief being Francis, Fraser, Stuart, Quesnels, Thompson, Okanagan, Pinkslitsa, and Flat Bow. Lake Francis is the remote source of the Fraser River.

Climate.—The extreme heat is much less than that of the eastern portion, while the winter is so comparatively mild that snow rarely remains on the ground for a week. The high lands are generally dry and cold, the Fraser valley and the south-west warmer and humid. Humming-birds are frequently found, and the cactus readily grows in the south-west, these being sure evidences of the increased warmth. The average temperature is said to resemble closely that of the British Islands, excepting that fogs very rarely occur. The air is healthy.

Productions.—The chief source of wealth is the great variety of minerals. Gold in very large quantities is found in several places. The most celebrated diggings are at Carriboo, a tract lying between Lake Quesnels and the River Fraser. Other deposits occur both in the beds of the Fraser and its tributaries, and in the terraces which surround them. In addition to gold many other minerals have been discovered, the chief being coal, copper, plumbago, silver, iron, platinum, cobalt, and lignite. The largest coal-field is on the east of Pinkslitsa Lake; another of considerable importance is worked 50 miles east of Fort Hope.

The vegetation in the south-west is of great beauty. Immense forests cover the land for many miles, the most valuable of the trees being the cypress, pine, fir, hemlock, yew,





oak, birch, poplar, maple, spruce, and cedar. The soil is very rich in this portion, and the chief grains are easily cultivated. Northward the country loses its fertility, the trees

become scarce, and the character of the province is completely changed.

The animals are of a varied description, and for many years were the chief support of the colonists, who killed them for their fur. The principal large animals are the bear (black and grizzly), buffalo, moose, red deer, stag, puma, fox, and wolf, while of the vast number of smaller animals the most important are the racoon, marten, mink, sable, musk rut, beaver, badger, land and sea otters, and rabbit.

Another great source of natural wealth is found in the fish which abound in the sea and rivers. The great value of the fisheries is a very distinguishing feature of all the American colonies, and that of British Columbia is as valuable as any. The rivers are abundantly supplied with salmon, trout, and many other fresh-water fish, while the sea is

occupied by large numbers of sturgeon, mackerel, cod, carp, herring, and sole.

Inhabitants.—It is difficult to obtain a reliable estimate of the white population of Columbia, but it is generally accepted that their number is about 16,000. They are members of various races, the Chinese forming a considerable proportion. In addition to

the whites there are Indians who number, probably, about as many more.

The great majority of the white population are gold diggers. They have no settled home, wandering to those places they think the most suitable for their work. A few have adopted the work of agriculture, and they have met with good success, the soil possessing great fertility in the south-west. The climate is particularly suited to the production of wheat, which forms the chief grain cultivated. Barley and oats receive a fair share of attention. The valuable fishing on the coast is extensively and vigorously conducted, and is growing in importance.

All manufactured goods are imported, as well as considerable quantities of grain and live stock, from Vancouver Island. The principal articles of export are gold, fur, fish,

and skins. The value of the gold is increasing.

Towns.—New Westminster is the capital of the province. None of the towns are of any magnitude. The chief stations at present are Fort Hope, Fort Langley, Stella, and Fort McLeod.

### VANCOUVER ISLAND.

Situation.—This is a long island, situated off the southern portion of the Coast of British Columbia, from which it is separated by Queen Charlotte Sound. Between the south of the island and the United States are the Straits of Juan de Fucca. The western coast is washed by the Pacific Ocean.

General Features.—The coast is indented by numerous harbours, while the Sound, between the island and the mainland, forms one of the largest and best natural harbours in the world. It is the only good harbour but one in 5,000 miles of coast.

The interior is chiefly composed of mountains and barren rocks, the former being frequently clothed to their summits in forests of pine. The highest hill is Mount Arrowroot, 6,000 feet. Apparently, the only available land for cultivation is near the sea coasts. Water communication can be effected with nearly every part of the island by means of the inlets or rivers.

Climate and Productions.—The climate is very similar to that of the Fraser Valley in Columbia, and the productions also bear a close resemblance. Gold is found in increasing quantities, while coal is extensively worked. The principal other minerals are iron, copper, silver, plumbago, and lead. The chief forest trees are oak and fir. The vegetation is frequently luxuriant.

Inhabitants.—The majority of the inhabitants are occupied on the soil, the cultivation of which, considering the rude means employed, has been fairly productive, the soil in many places being extremely fertile. Mining is probably second in importance, while the fisheries have a prominent position. A ready market for the surplus produce is found in the neighbouring colony of Columbia, of which Vancouver Island is the chief source of supply. The articles imported are manufactured goods and colonial produce, while the exports are chiefly agricultural produce, live stock, coal, gold, and furs.

Towns.—The only town of importance is Victoria, the capital and chief port. Amongst many natural advantages, this town has that of a supply of coal for steam vessels calling at the port.

QUEEN CHARLOTTE ISLANDS are a group of islands lying north of Vancouver Island, forming a portion of the province of New Brunswick. Its climate and productions are closely allied to those of that province. Its inhabitants are almost exclusively confined to members of a tribe of Indians, their number being about 10,000.

## NEWFOUNDLAND.

Situation and Extent.—The Island of Newfoundland lies at the entrance of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and is but twenty miles from the coast of Labrador in its northern part. The boundaries are Belle Isle Strait on the north, Gulf of St. Lawrence on the west, and the Atlantic Ocean on the east and south. Its length, measured from Pistolet Bay to Cape Race, is about 385 miles, while the breadth from Cape Anguille to Deadman Point is 300 miles. The area is about 40,200 square miles.

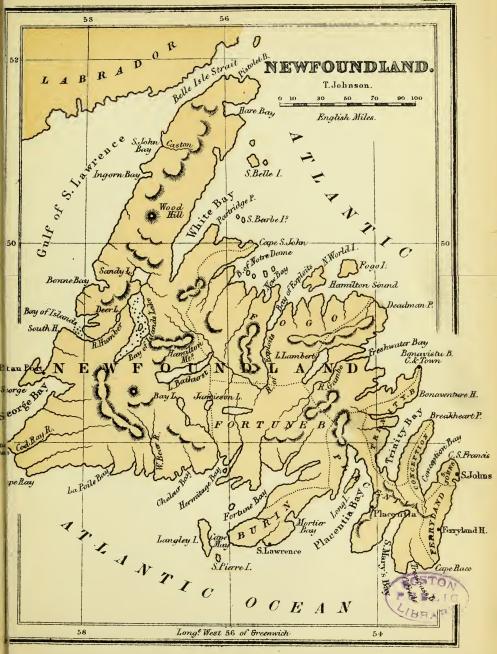
Coast.—The coast line is exceedingly irregular, and, viewed from the sea, has a wild, barren aspect. Westward it consists chiefly of high, rocky cliffs, while on the east it is formed by a succession of low hills. The coast is so indented that it contains little but a series of deep bays, peninsulas, and bold promontories. The bays form a great number of good natural harbours. The chief of these are—East, White Bay, Bay of Notre Dame, Bay of Exploits, Freshwater Bay, Trinity Bay, and Conception Bay. South, St. Mary's Bay, Placentia Bay, Fortune Bay, and Hermitage Bay. West, St. George Bay, Bay of Islands, Bonnie and Ingorn Bay. Placentia Bay, on the south, and Trinity Bay on the east, together form a narrow isthmus connecting what is known as the peninsula of Avalon with the larger portion. The chief promontories are—East, Cape St. John, Deadman Point, Bonavistu Cape, Breakheart Cape, and Cape St. Francis. South, Cape Race, Cape Freele, Cape May, and Cape Ray. West, Anguille Head, Cape St. George, and South Head. Off the south and south-east of the island lie the great Banks of Newfoundland. These are the largest submarine elevations in the world, stretching over a length of nearly 700 miles, and having in some portions a breadth of 200 miles. The depth of the water covering the banks varies in different parts from 15 to 80 fathoms. They principally consist of three banks, the largest, the Great Bank, being 300 miles long and 200 miles wide. Green Bank and Banquer, the other two, are together about equal in size to the Great Bank.

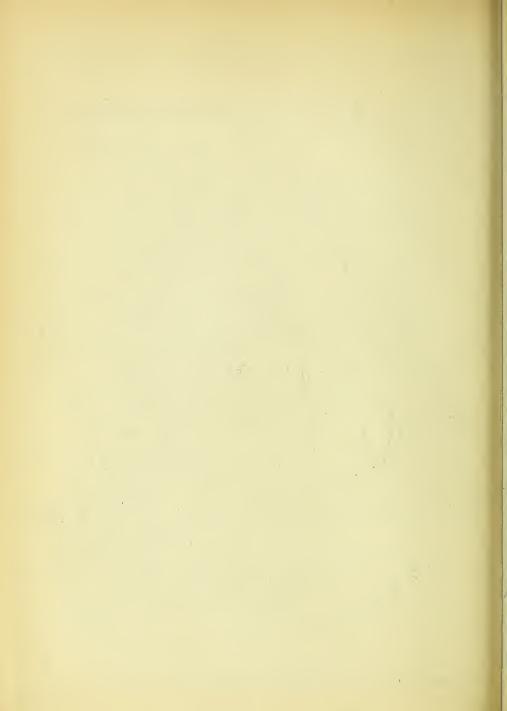
Surface.—The interior is as yet but little known. It has, however, been found to consist of numerous ranges of low hills, separated by rivers frequently expanding into lakes of considerable magnitude. Two of the rivers, the Hamilton and the River of Exploits, are navigable, while the River Gambo is one of less importance. The chief lakes are Bay of Islands Lake, Sandy Lake, and Deer Lake, connected with Humber River; Lake Bathurst, connected with the River of Exploits; Bay Lake and Jamieson Lake, connected with the Hermitage River; and Lake Lambert, near the eastern coast. The general appearance of the country is rocky and barren, the only apparently alluvial tracts being the country adjoining the banks of the principal rivers. The interior is frequently described as a series of hills, lakes, bogs, ponds and rivers.

Climate.—The winter is long and severe, the summer short but extremely hot. The atmosphere is generally moist, except in the summer, when it is very dry. The greatest drawback is the frequency of fog, caused by the meeting of the waters of the Gulf Stream with those of the Arctic Ocean. These fogs often completely envelop the island, and cause a great number of disasters off the coast.

Productions.—For many years Newfoundland was thought to possess no minerals whatever; but recent investigation has shown that large quantities of coal, iron, and 'copper, with several ores of silver exist, and a few of them are successfully worked. The granite is said to be of a superior quality.

The vegetation is but scanty, and mostly scrubby. A few forests of *pine* and *oak* occur, but as a rule timber is very scarce. The greater portion of the island is well suited for pasture land.







The chief animals are deer, otters, foxes, bears, martens, and hares. The beaver was

formerly very plentiful, but is now becoming rare.

The great wealth of the island is the fish found off its coast. These include the cod, mackerel, herring, cuplen, and seal, with many others of less importance. The Great Bank is famous for the shoals of cod that swarm over it.

Inhabitants.—The population is about 161,400 (1874). These are principally native-born descendants of emigrants from the British Islands, the Irish being the most

numerous. The original inhabitants have entirely disappeared.

The principal occupation of the people is fishing, the cod fishery being the greatest in importance. The inhabitants of Newfoundland do not usually fish off the Great Bank, but inshore, on account of the advantages in landing the fish. The bank fishery is chiefly in the hands of the French and Americans.

A little attention has been devoted to agriculture, and average crops of barley, oats,

and vegetables have been obtained.

The only manufactures are those of stockings, caps, and mittens, besides the usual minor articles.

The colony is confined to the shores of the upper portion and the peninsula of Avalon. It is said that there is not a single house one mile from the shore in the

northern portion.

Commerce.—Almost the whole of the export trade consists of dried fish. The chief articles are salmon, cod, herring, and mackerel, fish oils, and seal skins; their value in 1877 was about £1,700,000, that with the United Kingdom alone being £849,773. The imports consist principally of British manufactures, with produce from the islands of the West Indies; salted provisions from Ireland and Germany, and flour and meal from the United States. Their value in 1877 was about £1,300,000, those imported from the British Islands amounting to £671,591.

**Towns.**—The only town is that of St. John on the Eastern Coast. It possesses a good harbour, the shores of which are lined with wharves for the reception and preparation of the fish. The population is about 26,000.

Government and History.—The government is at present administered by an Executive Council and a Legislative Council of not more than fifteen members appointed by the Crown, and an Assembly of thirty-one members elected by the inhabitants. The

Sovereign is represented by a Governor.

The island was discovered in 1497 by John Cabot, and frequented by the Portuguese as early as 1500. In the latter part of the sixteenth century Raleigh attempted to establish a colony, but was unsuccessful. Later, however, Sir George Baltimore was successful in the south-eastern peninsula, which he called Avalon. For years the history of the island would be only a description of the rivalries between the English and French fishermen. In 1713 the English supremacy was acknowledged, and this treaty was ratified in 1763.

ANTICOSTI ISLAND.—This island is situated at the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and has an area of more than 3,000 square miles. The interior is nearly covered with vast forests; the rivers are very numerous; the south is low and swampy, the centre and north hilly. The island is chiefly valuable for the fish abounding near its shores. The population is confined to a few families placed on the island to render aid to the crews of vessels wrecked on the shore. The island is included in the Government of Newfoundland.

### WEST INDIES.

Situation.—The groups of islands known as the West Indies lie between the North and South American continents, ranging between the parallels of 10° and 27° north latitude, so that the greater portion is within the torrid zone. The latitude is the same as Hindostan, and their name was given them because of Columbus's belief that these islands were the western coast of India.

The islands are arranged in three groups, (a) the Greater Antilles, (b) the Lesser Antilles, (c) the Bahama Islands. The former group is situate in the central part of the great bay separating the two great continents, the second stretches along the outside of

the bay from the 10° parallel to 19° north latitude, while the latter is the north-eastern portion of these islands. The whole of the latter, the majority of the second, and a few of the former groups belong to the British Empire.

BRITISH ISLANDS IN THE WEST INDIES.

GROUP.	Islands.	Area. Sq. Miles.	POPULA-	How Acquired.
GREATER ANTILLES	Jamaica Little Cayman Grand Cayman Cayman Brack	4,300 40	506,154	Captured, 1655.
Leeward Islands	Anegada Virgin Gorda Tortola Crab Island Culebra Anguilla Barbuda Antigua St. Christopher Nevis Mont Serrat Dominica	35 75 108 68 45 47 291	6,651 2,773 850 34,300 28,169 12,074 8,693 21,178	Settled, 1632. Settled, 1630. Settled, 1628. Settled, 1632. Ceded, 1763.
Windward Islands 3	St. Lucia.  Barbadoes St. Vincent. Cariacou Canaguan Bequia Grenada Tobago Trinidad	250 166 130 13 120 120 1,754	31,610 162,042 35,688 37,684 17,054 113,000	Ceded, 1773. Settled, 1624. Ceded, 1763. Ceded, 1783. Ceded, 1793. Conquered 1797
Bahana Islands	Great Bahama Great Abaco Little Abaco Moose Island Eleuthera Cat Island Andros Island Anguilla Island Great Exuma Watlings Islands Rum Cay Long Island Crooked Island Acklin Isle Atwood Cay Mariguana Great Inagua Little Inagua Providenciale Island Grand Caicos Turks Island	5,794	39,162	Settled, 1629.

The Established Church has five colonial dioceses in the British West Indies. They are—

(a). The diocese of Jamaica, including that island, and the province of British Honduras.

(b). The diocese of Barbadoes, embracing that island, and the adjacent British possessions in the Windward Islands.

(c). The diocese of Antigua, including all the members of the Leeward Group.

(d). The diocese of Nassau, composed of the Bahamas, Turks Island, and Caicos.

# JAMAICA.

Situation and Extent.—Jamaica is the largest island under British control in the West Indies. It is situated about 100 miles south of the eastern extremity of Cuba, and rather more than 150 miles west of Hayti. The exact position of the island is between 17° 45′ and 18° 30′ north latitude, and 76° 10′ and 78° 22′ west longitude. Measured from Salvannah Bay in the west to Morant Point in the east its length is about 160 miles, while its average breadth is between thirty and forty miles. Its area is 4,256 square miles.

Coast.—The coast on all sides is fairly low, rising gradually towards the mountain ranges that occupy the whole of the interior. In some portions, however, cliffs approach close to the sea, and over them numerous small rivers fall into the sea. There is a great abundance of natural harbours, the majority of them being perfectly safe in all weathers. They are well distributed on both the northern and the southern shores. The most important are Kingston Bay, Port Royal, Salvannah Bay, Mondego Bay, Falmouth Bay, Lucca Bay, and St. Anne's Bay. Many promontories occur on both the coasts; the only two noteworthy being Morant Point, the most easterly part, and Portland Point, the southern extremity of the island.

Surface.—The greater portion of the island is composed of a succession of hills of which the Blue Mountains form the central range, the other chains being spurs from that range. Towards the east these chains increase in number, and occupy the whole of that portion of the island. The average height of the Blue Mountains is but little less than 6,000 feet, while the highest elevation, generally known as Westerly Peak, has an alti-

tude of nearly 7,400 feet.

The valleys that occur between the hills are generally long and narrow. Towards the south, however, they expand into the only considerable plain in the whole island, the Plain of Liguania. Both the hills and the valleys are covered with the most luxuriant vegetation. The island is remarkably well watered by a great number of rivers which flow in every direction. From their rapid descent they are, however, chiefly torrents, and are of so little depth that in no case could they be adopted for commercial purposes. Of all the rivers only three, the Minho, Cobre, and Black River can be said to be of importance, and one alone of these, the Black River, is navigable, and that only by flat-bottomed boats for about thirty miles inland. The appearance of the island from the sea is most beautiful on account of the gentle slopes of the hills, and the luxuriance of the vegetation that covers them.

Climate.—Jamaica is situated within the torrid zone, and it has all the peculiarities of climate which usually belong to countries similarly situated. The extreme heat of the more inland portions is, however, greatly modified by their elevation. The heat in the smaller islands is much more severe than in Jamaica. The average temperature on the coast districts is as high as 81° Fahrenheit, but on the hills it is much more temperate. The hills are the healthy portion of the island, the coast district being subject to the yellow fever, a deadly visitor that yearly kills hundreds of inhabitants and visitors. It is, however, much less prevalent now than it was formerly, and with care and temperate habits Jamaica is reported to be now not more unhealthy than other places within the torrid zone. This view is supported by the large number of inhabitants of all races and both sexes that attain a ripe old age.

The only apparent change of season is from dry to wet. This change is the chief peculiarity in the climate of all the Greater Antilles. On the southern coasts, and the districts in their immediate vicinity, the rainy season commences with great regularity about the end of April, and continues with varying interruption, according to the island, until the end of November. In Jamaica this interruption is a short dry season—about six weeks in duration—generally commencing early in the month of August. In the northern districts the distinctness of the two seasons is much less marked. The greater portion of the rainfall is between April and November, but rain is far from uncommon in the remainder of the year. In the south the months between November and April are almost without exception exempted from clouds of all kinds, the sky being of extraordinary clearness. This difference in climate is probably the result of the influence of the Gulf Stream on the northern shores of these islands. The annual rainfall is heavy. The greatest obstacles to success in Jamaica are the periodical hurricanes that frequently devastate the productions of large districts, and the earthquakes, which are such common visitors, and which are scarcely less destructive than the hurricanes.

**Productions.**—The minerals are of considerable variety, but the more valuable do not occur in such quantities as to cause them to be one of the sources of natural wealth found in the island. Only one or two are worked, and those to an inconsiderable extent. The chief of the ores known to exist are those of *iron*, copper, lead, zinc, cobalt, and manganese.

The appearance of the whole island shows the great fertility of the soil and the beauty of its vegetation. It is frequently described as one large expanse of hills and valleys covered with forests or grasses and other vegetation of the wildest growth. The chief labourer has been nature, man apparently having done but little. The forests contain many magnificent timber trees, several kinds being those much used for cabinets and furniture, such as mahogany, cedar, and pine. Fruit trees are of even greater abundance, and gardens occupied by the beautiful palms, mango, bread fruit, orange, lemon, and pear trees are of very frequent occurrence. In a more uncultivated state the same trees are equally fruitful, growing in the same forests as the guava, papaw, banana, cabbage tree, pine-apple, plantain, caoutchouc, oak, and the forbidden fruit trees. Besides these are many spices and medicinal plants, the chief being allspice, arrowroot, ginger, brazil wood, Peruvian bark, aloes, sassafras, and castor oil, while the coffee, cotton, indigo, and many other valuable plants are found in great abundance. The sugar-cane is a native, but although it has received considerable attention, its cultivation has never approached in any degree that of the same plant in the Mauritius, the plantations being of little size.

The animals are all small, and, with a few exceptions, of a harmless description. The largest quadruped in the island is the hog (a fierce species), that provides pleasure for a considerable number of sportsmen, the sport being greatly heightened by the danger attached to it, which is far from slight, the boar being fierce and powerful, and provided with a formidable weapon in his horn. Monkeys of different varieties abound, and are probably the most numerous of any of the animals. The birds are of a varied description, the humming bird and flamingo being the most remarkable. The rivers and neighbouring seas are occupied by innumerable fish of an excellent kind. Turtles are occasionally found. The reptiles include the cayman, iguana, lizard, and several kinds of snakes. The insect life is numerous, and proves very obnoxious to the European inhabitants of the country.

Inhabitants.—The majority of the people are of mixed colour or negroes. The white inhabitants are diminishing annually with the decay of the island. The coloured portion were formerly slaves, but they were emancipated in 1834, and now enjoy all the advantages of British rule. They are freely admitted into every profession, practising as lawyers, physicians, &c, while already several negroes have become judges and coroners. The energy of the white man is, however, wanting, the coloured population being almost without exception idle and dissolute. Consequently the sugar plantations and other agricultural works have been completely ruined, and as these were the chief support of the island, the present position of affairs is very unsatisfactory. Hopes are entertained that the introduction of coolies from Hindostan will enable the lost position to be regained, but that is still in the future.

The chief products are sujar, coffee, cotton, pimento, cocoa, and ginger, and these, with rum and molasses, form the greater portion of the export trade. The imports consist chiefly of British manufactures, a large quantity being re-exported to the neighbouring islands of Cuba and Hayti. The value of the imports in 1876 was £1,700,253, while the exports amounted to £1,517,015, the total value of the trade with the British Islands being £2,194,800.

The means of communication are in a very disordered condition, the roads being almost invariably impassable when crossing the interior. Jamaica is a prominent example of the inability of the coloured race to conduct effectually the administration of a country

in a civilized manner.

Divisions and Towns.—The island is divided into three districts, called respectively Surrey, Middlesex, and Cornwall. The towns are now of little importance, the chief being Kingston (30,000), the centre of the trade. The capital is Spanish Town, pleasantly situated in the interior, but with little traffic. Other towns are Savannah la Mar, Port Antonio, and Annotte.

Government and History.—The administration is now in the hands of a governor, assisted by a council of eight members, and a legislative assembly of twelve members. Previously to 1870 the government was representative, but in that year the members petitioned for the dissolution of their houses, and the affairs are almost entirely in the hands of the governor. The revenue in 1876 was £529,784, and the expenditure £486,879. The public debt, at the close of the same year, amounted to £501,413.

Jamaica was first discovered by Columbus in 1494, and the first European settlement was made by the Spaniards as early as 1509. They, however, were so avaricious as to refuse other nations any portion of the trade from the West India Islands, and this being resented by England, the raids on the Spanish settlements by Raleigh, Drake, Hawkins, and others, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, were the result. Cromwell sent an expedition against the island in 1655, and it was easily captured. The Spaniards fled to the interior, and for years no settled government existed. A party of soldiers from England gave the additional strength required to establish British supremacy, and Jamaica became an acknowledged portion of the British Empire.

The island has frequently been visited by earthquakes, some of which have been remarkable. Kingston was nearly destroyed in 1692 by an earthquake that placed the

greater portion of the town at the bottom of the neighbouring sea.

CAYMAN ISLANDS.—These are three small islands situated to the north-west of Jamaica. Only one is of sufficient value to possess inhabitants—Grand Cayman. The chief article obtained is the turtle. These islands form a portion of the colony of Jamaica.

### LEEWARD ISLANDS.

Situation.—The British Leeward Islands consist of the northern portion of the Windward Islands, extending from the latitude of Porto Rico to Martinique.

Natural Features.—The islands are numerous but small, their general features bearing a close resemblance. The eastern coast generally rises from the sea by a steep ascent to hills of considerable elevation. Harbours of a good description are to be found in most of the islands.

Climate.—The chief features of the West Indian climate have been given with Jamaica, that of Lesser Antilles varies but little. The temperature averages about 80° Fahr., or 2° greater than that of Jamaica, and the dry and wet seasons vary with regard to time, but otherwise the resemblance is nearly exact. The healthy months are between November and June. The heavy rains set in early in July, lasting until October, when fevers are very prevalent. The dry season lasts from November to May, when a short rainy season intervenes for a month, followed by an extremely hot period previous to the heavy rains. These latter are almost invariably introduced by severe thunder and light-

ning, and frequently by violent gusts of wind. Although great, the heat is modified considerably by the trade winds and the Atlantic equatorial current. Hurricanes and earthquakes are frequently destructive to the produce of the smaller islands.

Productions.—A large variety of minerals is found, but except in a few cases they occur in such minute quantities that their working would prove unprofitable. Copper,

sulphur and salt are raised on a few of the islands.

The vegetation on the western sides of the islands is inferior to that on the eastern, in consequence of the influence of the trade-winds on the latter. Nearly all the more valuable productions of Jamaica are found on these islands in perfection, but there is not that beauty so general in the other portions of the West Indies, and the undergrowth is not so wild. The most valuable of the trees are logwood, papaw, breadfruit, and several cabinet woods. Sugar, cotton, coffee, cocoa, indigo, ginger, arnotto, pimento, and tobacco grow in a wild state, and are also slightly cultivated.

The animals are almost precisely those given on page 96, the larger ones being less abundant than on the island of Jamaica. The domestic animals are chiefly remarkable for the smallness of their breed. Sheep, goats, horse, and oxen are kept, but their

are numbers small, although the islands possess good pasturage.

Divisions, &c.—Prior to 1871 the Leeward Islands formed six separate colonies, viz., Antiqua, Montserrat, St. Christopher, Nevis, Dominica, and the Virgin Islands; but in that year they were constituted a federal colony. The united population is nearly 120,000, and the revenue amounts to £104,000, while the value of the export and import trade is about £685,000. The following table summarises the revenue and expenditure, with the value of the imports and exports of each portion of the Confederation, for 1876.

Division.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Imports.	Exports.
VIRGIN ISLANDS	£ 2,049 32,354 31,557 5,774 10,335 22,097	£ 2,039 33,530 27,992 5,349 10,444 21,966	£ 2,774 140,036 139,236 23,989 37,933 60,918	£ 143,237 70,827 38,357 11,390 17,240
	104,166	101,320	404,886	281,051

THE VIRGIN ISLANDS form the north-western portion of the British Leeward group, and are very numerous, the majority being but large rocks emerging from the sea. The British possess three of the most important—Tortola, Virgin Gorda, and Anegada, besides possessing privileges on Culebra and Crab Island. The other islands belong to France, Denmark, and Spain.

Tortola, the largest, has an area of 30 square miles. The whole of the interior

consists of a group of hills rising in their highest peaks to 1,600 feet.

Virgin Gorda is hilly and barren in the eastern portion, but the remainder is very fertile. A rich vein of copper has been extensively worked. Area, 15 square miles.

Anceada, the least important, is formed by a number of low coral reefs of but little

elevation above the sea.

The climate of these islands is much more healthy than that of any other part of the West Indies, the heat being far more moderate. The productions are of a varied character; sugar, cotton, fruits, and vegetables are the chief. The inhabitants number 6,700, about one-half being settlers of white origin.

Road Town, in Tortola, is the capital, and the only town of importance. It is the

seat of the Lieutenant-Governor of the group.

Antigua is situated in 17° 6' north latitude and 61° 45' west longitude, about 200 miles east of the Virgin Islands.

The coast is chiefly composed of bold and rocky cliffs of considerable elevation, but forming several good harbours, one of which, English Harbour, on the south coast, is

reported as the best in the West Indies.

The climate is healthy, the air being extremely dry. The springs supply water possessing a disagreeable taste; the inhabitants depend principally upon the rains, and consequently a deficiency in the supply is frequent. The interior is undulating, the hills being covered with verdure, and never higher than 1,500 feet. The flowers, growing in a native state, are famed for their gorgeous splendour.

The vegetation is of a very varied description, considerable tracts being covered with forests of valuable trees, containing many cabinet woods, while nearly two-thirds of the island is under cultivation, sugar plantations occupying the greater portion. Amongst the most valuable productions are tamarinds, arrowroot, coffee, and cotton.

The articles exported in addition to these comprise molasses, rum, and tobacco.

The chief town is St. John, situated on a fine harbour in the north-west. It is the residence of the Governor-General of the Leeward Islands. It has a population of 19,000. English Harbour is the scene of a station bearing the same name, and a place of considerable

trade.

BARBUDA is a small island about 100 miles north of Antigua, forming the estate of the Codrington family, and is a dependency of Antigua, although under proprietary government. The island is formed by a number of low coral rocks. The surface is level to an extraordinary degree, the most elevated point in the island being not more than 80 feet above the sea. The climate is mild and healthy, but the hurricanes frequently

prove destructive to property.

The soil possesses great fertility, but only a small portion of the island is under cultivation, the remainder being covered with forests of magnificent trees. No sugar is grown, but corn, cotton, coffee, and tobacco are successfully cultivated. Stock rearing receives some attention, considerable numbers of horses, sheep, cattle, and pigs being exported to the neighbouring islands. The other articles of export are corn, cotton, pepper, and tobacco. The imported articles of this and all the West Indian Islands consist chiefly of articles of British manufacture. The island possesses neither harbours nor towns. Vessels trading with the inhabitants are obliged to anchor in a roadstead off the northern coast.

ST. CHRISTOPHER, or St. Kitt's, as it is frequently called, lies on 7° 21' north latitude and 61° 45' west longitude, being about fifty miles west of the Island of Antigua. The interior is mountainous, the only level portion being that near the coast on the south and east. The hills in a few instances attain an elevation of 4,000 feet. In the northern part there is an extinct volcano called Mount Misery. Only one-half of the island is fit for cultivation, the remainder being nearly barren. The chief article cultivated is sugar; cotton, tobacco, and arrowroot receive some attention. Sulphur has been found within the mountainous portion in large quantities. The exports are molasses, sugar, and rum, with small quantities of indigo, arrowroot, and tobacco. The capital is Basse-terre on the south coast. Population 7,000.

ANGUILLA, or Little Snake Island, is situated about 50 miles north of Barbuda Island. It is long and narrow, the length being 15 miles. The island is a dependency of St. Kitt's. The surface is low and level, the hills being extremely few. The soil is fairly fertile, and produces good crops of sugar, cotton, tobacco, and maize, but the island is deficient in the woods so plentiful in the neighbouring islands. A scarcity of water is also of frequent occurrence. The island has obtained notoriety during the last ten years by the discovery that it is composed of substances rich in the phosphate of lime now so much used as manure by English farmers, and which rivals the guano of Peru. A lake is found in the central part from which a large quantity of salt is obtained and exported to the neighbouring islands. Large numbers of cattle and sheep are reared.

MONTSERRAT is a small island, situated about 30 miles south-west of Antigua, on the parallels of 16° 45′ north latitude, and 62° 15′ west longitude. The surface is hilly, and a great portion of it barren. Not one-third of the area is fit for cultivation, but the slopes of the mountains are, in some cases, well adapted for the growth of coffee and sugar.

The climate is regarded as amongst the healthiest in the Antilles, and the appearance of the island is rendered beautiful by the succession of rocky, barren hills and fertile

valleys

The population is chiefly comprised of negroes, the majority of the white inhabitants being of Irish descent.

The only exports are sugar, coffee, molasses, and rum; the articles imported being

chiefly manufactured goods.

Plymouth is the chief town, and is very neatly built. The island suffers from the want of a good harbour.

NEVIS lies on 17° 10' north latitude, and 62° 33' west longitude, being about 25

miles south of St. Kitts, and 40 miles south-west of Antigua.

Along the coast is a narrow belt of low land rising towards the interior, the whole reaching its culminating point in the centre of the island, which consequently has a conical shape. The whole of this island is generally regarded as one mountain, its elevation being about 3,000 feet. It is of volcanic origin.

Only a small portion is cultivated. The only important object is sugar, which,

together with molasses and rum, form the whole of the exports.

Charlestown, the chief town, is well built and in a flourishing condition; vessels find safe anchorage in a neighbouring roadstead. The island is in a more satisfactory state

than the majority of the West Indian Islands.

Dominica, the largest of the British Leeward Islands, is situated in 15° 10′ north latitude, and 61° 20′ west longitude, or about 40 miles south of Montserrat. The interior is very rugged, the mountains attaining a greater height than in any other portion of the Antilles. The hills are in most cases clothed to their summits with fancy woods, such as rosewood. A small portion only is cultivated, but in many parts the soil is exceedingly fertile. The chief products are sugar, coffee, tobacco, copper ore, and sulphur, the latter being plentifully thrown up by the numerous vent holes of volcanoes. The whole island is of volcanic origin.

In the centre of the island is a large fresh-water lake, which occupies the crater of an extinct volcano at a considerable elevation. The climate of this island is more unhealthy than that of any other portion of the Leeward group, fevers being very prevalent. Coffee is becoming the chief article of export, while sugar, cocoa, tobacco, molasses, rum, copper, maize, and cotton form important items. Roseau, the capital, in the south-west, is a wretchedly built town. St. Joseph, also on the west, is the only other place of im-

portance. The people are French in customs, language, and manners.

Government.—Each of the divisions has a separate government, consisting of a council of government, and an elected legislative assembly. The President of the Council is the representative of the Crown in the Virgin Islands, Montserrat, and Nevis, while St. Kitt's and Dominica are under a Lieutenant-Governor, and Antigua is under the administration of a Governor, who is also the Governor-General of the whole of the British Leeward Islands. Although the Local Governments are practically independent, all communications with the Home Authorities must be transmitted through the Governor of Antigua. The particulars of revenue have already been given on page 98.

**History.**—The Virgin Islands were occupied by some Dutch buccaneers as early as 1648. Englishmen of a corresponding character drove these from the islands in 1666; but the first permanent British settlement was not formed until 1694, when the island was occupied by some families from Anguilla, and since that time the British

authority has been undisputed.

St. Christopher Island was discovered in 1493 by Columbus, who gave it his own Christian name. It was the first British settlement in the West Indies, the colony being formed in 1623 by Sir Thomas Warner, an energetic merchant. From 1627 to 1629 the French and English held the island together. The Spaniards drove the English out in 1629, but they were restored in 1667, and in 1783 the island was finally ceded to Britain.

Nevis was colonised by the British in 1628, and remained in their possession until captured by the French in 1706. It was again captured by France in 1782, and restored

in 1783. Since that date it has remained with the English.

Montserrat and Antigua were both colonised by Sir T. Warner in 1632, and have throughout shared the same fate. Both islands were captured by the French during 1666, and were restored by the treaty of Breda in 1667. They have remained under British control from that period.

Dominica received its name from Columbus, in consequence of its having been discovered on a Sunday, November 3rd, 1493. For many years England, France, and

Spain disputed the right of possession, and it was not until 1759 that conquest placed it in the possession of the British, its annexation being ceded in the treaty of Utrecht in 1763. The French invaded the island in 1778, and drove the British out, but the island was restored in 1783. Another strong attempt to dislodge the British was made in 1805

but proved unsuccessful, and its possession has never since been disputed.

Until 1834 a great proportion of the inhabitants were slaves, but in that year all such were emancipated. This change has greatly affected the planters, who are now in most places unable to obtain labour, the coloured race being very indolent now that it is free. Very few of the islands are, consequently, able to hold their former positions. An Act was passed in 1871 enacting that the islands should form a confederacy called the Leeward Islands.

### WINDWARD ISLANDS

Situation.—The islands generally known by this name form the southern portion of the Lesser Antilles in the proper Windward group. The most northerly island is St. Lucia, the most southerly Trinidad. The latter is not included in the Confederation of the British Windward Islands.

Surface.—In several features the islands bear a general resemblance. The eastern shores rise abruptly from the sea, and the vegetation on that side is superior to the western side. In all of the larger islands at least one good harbour is found, and in some cases there are several.

Climate.—All the general characteristics of the Lesser Antilles were given with the Leeward Islands. The heat in the Windward Islands is less than in the Leeward, and the climate generally more unhealthy. All the islands, except Tobago, are within the range of the Atlantic hurricanes, which are frequently very destructive.

Productions.—Like all the West Indian Islands, the most important production is the vegetation. The forests cover large tracts, the trees being of a valuable description. Various kinds of cabinet wood are abundant. Amongst the important productions are cotton, coffee, sugar, indigo, ginger, pimento, arnotto, aloes, sassafras, and castor oil. The fruits are equally varied and valuable, comprising the pine-apple, cocoanut, guava, mango, shaddock, papaw, cabbage tree, pomegranate, orange, lemon, banana, and bread fruit. Minerals are scarce, and occur only in very small quantities. Potters' clay, coal, and petroleum are found in Barbadoes.

The animals are small, a few wild hogs being the largest species. The birds have gorgeous plumage. The parrot and humming-bird are numerous. Snakes and lizards are abundant. The cayman is occasionally found.

Divisions.—The principal islands forming the Confederacy of the Windward Islands are St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Grenada and the Grenadine Islands, Barbadoes, and Tobago. The seat of the Governor General is in Barbadoes.

The following table enumerates the amount of the income and expenditure in each

division during 1876, and the value of the import and export trade:-

Division.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Imports.	Exports.
ST. LUCIA ST. VINCENT BARBADOES GRENADA TOBAGO Total.	28,858 117,057 26,286 11,769	£ 29,242 27,997 123,728 26,724 11,644 219,335	£ 106,963 154,915 1,027,871 114,861 54,582 1,459,192	£ 143,718 183,301 964,263 178,853 79,670 1,549,805

St. Lucia, the most northerly of the British Windward Islands, lies in 14 north latitude and 61° west longitude, being about 150 miles south of Dominica, the most southerly of the British Leewards. The surface is very diversified; hills covered with forests separated by fertile valleys, and rugged mountains with ravines and precipices are all found in close proximity. The rivers are numerous, but shallow, and none are of any use for navigation. The highest hills are two conical peaks on the south-west. The climate is very unhealthy, being considered one of the worst in the Antilles. It is subjected to rapid changes and excessive heat, and is very moist.

Nearly the whole island is covered with vegetation. Large forests are found in the interior, containing all the trees for which the West Indies are famed. Cultivation is, however, but little practised, not more than one-tenth being occupied by plantations. Snakes are very numerous and of a venomous kind. It is said that the inhabitants

cannot venture 20 yards from the roadsides for fear of being bitten.

The white inhabitants are of French descent, and retain their original language and customs. St. Lucia is in a better commercial position than the corresponding island in the Leeward Group, Dominica.

The chief productions are sugar, molasses, rum, coffee, and cocoa, these also forming

the principal articles of exports.

Castries, on the north-west of the island, the chief town, has a fair amount of trade.

St. Vincent is situated on 13° 15' north latitude and 61° 10' west longitude, being about 25 miles south of St. Lucia. The appearance of the island is very green and pretty. A ridge of hills, chiefly volcanic, runs from north to south, forming in the northern part the well-known Souffriere, famous for the great cruption that occurred early in the present century, and which is still occasionally active.

The climate is said to be fairly healthy, although very moist. The chief objects of cultivation are sugar, arrowroot, cocoa, coffee, and cotton; and these, with molasses and rum, form the exports. The imports are linen, cotton, and woollen goods, flour, wheat,

and fish. Kingstown, a well built town, is the capital.

BARBADDES, the most important of the British West Indies, with the exception of Jamaica, is situated 95 miles east of St. Vincent, being more easterly than any of the other islands of the group. The surface is very diversified and beautiful, the hills being low and covered with alluvial soil. Nearly the whole of the island is fit for cultivation, and wherever possible has been cultivated. A reef of coral rocks nearly surrounds the island. The sea breezes influence the climate to a great extent, and make it one of the most healthy in the West Indies. The great drawback to the success of the island are the hurricanes, which occur with such violence as frequently to lay waste large tracts, causing an immense loss to the estate owners.

No metals are found, but potter's clay, coal, and petroleum are obtained in con-

siderable quantities.

Barbadoes is the best cultivated of all the West Indian islands. Although its appearance is not attractive, its capabilities render it very valuable. Sugar is cultivated to a very large extent, there never having been any want of labourers, and the island has always maintained its position. A little arrowroot and aloes are also cultivated. Many mineral springs exist, from some of which a substance is obtained known as Barbadoes tar. The chief exports are sugar, molasses, and rum; the imports being, salt meat, butter, corn, flour, and rice.

The capital is Bridgetown, on a good harbour in the south-west. This town is the seat of the Governor-General of the Windward Islands, and the head quarters of Her Majesty's forces in the West Indies. Speightown, also on the west, has an excellent harbour. In the east is Codrington College, the most important educational establishment in the West Indies, its object being the education of clergymen belonging to the

English Established Church.

GRENADA is situated to the south-west of St. Vincent in latitude 12° 7′ north, and longitude 61° 45′ west. The island is of volcanic origin, and is of great beauty. The central portion is very high and mountainous, the valleys being remarkable for their great fertility. The climate is but moderately healthy and is very moist. The whole of the soil is fertile, but not much more than one-half is cultivated. The chief articles of produce are sugar, cotton, and indigo: tobacco and cocoa receiving some attention. Fruit ripens to perfection. The capital is Georgetown, a well-built town on a good harbour.

The Grenadines are a group of islands lying between St. Vincent and Grenada. The chief of these islands are Carriacou, Canagnan, and Bequia. They are all small and of little importance. There are no springs on the islands. A little cotton and sugar is grown, but the soil is not very productive. Whales abound off the coasts during the spring. The

islands belong to the Government of Grenada or St. Vincent.

Tobago is the most southerly of the British Windward group lying on the parallels of 11° 14′ north latitude, and 60° 42′ west longitude. The surface is most beautiful and diversified. The hills rise almost precipitously in the north-east, sloping towards the south-west, where the land lies low. Numerous springs occur, some being mineral. This island is out of the range of hurricanes; the climate is, however, unhealthy and very moist. Only a small portion is cultivated, it being estimated that the forests of hard and ornamental woods still cover more than two-thirds of the surface. The chief articles of produce are sugar, cotton, and molasses. Scarborough is situated on a fine harbour. The coasts contain several magnificent bays.

Inhabitants.—The population consists chiefly of negroes, or of a mixed coloured race. The whites are chiefly *creoles*, that is those born of white parents in the West Indies. Those of mixed parentage are called *mulattoes*. The coloured inhabitants were chiefly

slaves prior to 1834.

The commercial relations of these islands are larger than those of the Leeward group, the annual value of the import and export trades being nearly three millions. The chief products exported are sugar, molasses, rum, cocoa, tobacco, spices, and cotton. The imports are principally provisions and manufactured goods.

Government.—The Confederacy of the Windward Islands was formed in 1871. Each island, however, retains its former mode of local government. All the islands except St. Lucia have a president, a council, and an elected legislative assembly. St. Lucia is under the control of a President and Council appointed by the Crown.

History.—St. Lucia was first settled by the English in 1637, but they soon had to retire owing to the hostility of the natives. The French established a colony, and in 1763 the English acknowledged their rights. In the succeeding French war the English captured it, and during the following five years it changed hands several times. It was ceded to England at the close of the war.

St. Vincent was claimed by England in 1672, France and Spain being also claimants. Contention for its possessions lasted till 1748, when it was declared neutral territory. Ceded to England in 1763, it has remained in our possession since with the exception of

the period 1779-83, when it was held by the French.

Barbadoes was discovered by the Portuguese in 1526, settled by the English in

1624, and has ever since remained remained in our possession.

Grenada was discovered by Columbus in 1498; settled in 1654 by the French; captured by the English in 1762; retaken by the French in 1769, and finally ceded to

England in 1783.

Tobago, discovered in 1498, was settled in the early part of the seventeenth century. Prior to 1677 the island was the scene of contention between England, France, Spain, and Holland. From 1677 to 1763 the island was unoccupied. In 1763 the island was ceeded to the English, but was captured by the French in 1769. Retaken by the British in 1793, it has since remained in their possession. The emancipation of the slaves in 1834 lessened the supply of labourers and nearly ruined the islands. They are now recovering their position by the aid of coolies from India.

#### TRINIDAD.

Situation, &c.—Trinidad, the largest British island in the Lesser Antilles, lies across the mouth of the River Orinoco, the north-western and south-western extremities reaching to within a few miles of the continent, and enclosing a large portion of water called the Gulf of Paria. The straits, connecting the Gulf of Paria with the Atlantic Ocean, are called the Dragon's Mouth, in the north-west; and the Serpent's Mouth, in the south-west. The island is about 50 miles long and 45 miles wide; area about 2,000 square miles.

Surface.—Three ranges of hills cross the island from east to west, one stretching across the centre, and the others along the northern and southern coasts. The valleys enclosed are very extensive and possess great fertility, being in many places covered with long grass. The hills which, in the north, are 3,000 feet high, are generally clothed with forests of red cedar and other trees. A bituminous plain, generally called the Pitch Lake or Lake Brea, covers a large tract in the south-west. In the same neighbourhood mud volcanoes occur, the emissions being frequently projected to the height of 30 feet.

Climate and Productions.—The climate is healthy, and the island is out of the range of the hurricanes so destructive to the more northerly islands. The soil is rich and productive; and the forests contain many valuable trees, both for cabinet work and shipbuilding. Sugar and cocoa are the principal native produce, but many tropical plants have been introduced, among the most important being Brazil nuts, nutnegs, cloves, ginger, vanilla, and pepper.

Hoys are abundant in the forests, and turtles on the coasts. A large number of

cattle are reared.

Inhabitants.—The population numbers about 120,000. The majority are Negroes. The white population are chiefly of Spanish descent. Within the last thirty years more than 18,000 Coolies have emigrated from India to Trinidad, and have proved an important and valuable acquisition to the labour supply. The island is now in a very prosperous condition, and is considered to be still improving. Search for minerals has resulted in the discovery of coal in considerable quantities, but it is little worked.

The chief exports are sugar, molasses, rum, cocoa, coffee, spice, and pitch, their value in 1876 amounting to £1,248,360. The imports are composed of provisions and British

manufactured goods, valued at £571,720.

Towns.—The capital is Port of Spain, on the Gulf of Paria. It is a regularly built town capable of containing a much larger population than it has at present. The harbour is magnificent, being considered the best in the West Indies. The inhabitants number 22,000. Naparina and Macaripe are two other important towns on good harbours. The people are French in habits, language, and manners.

Government and History.—The island forms what is called a Crown Colony. The administration is conducted by a Governor, an Executive Council, and a Legislative Council, all appointed by the Crown. There is no Representive Assembly. The revenue

in 1876 amounted to £316,170, and the expenditure £318,362.

Christopher Columbus discovered the island in 1498. The first attempt was made at colonization in 1558, when the Spaniards took possession. In 1797 Sir Ralph Abercromby, at the head of an English force, conquered the island, and it has since remained in undisturbed possession of the British. Since that period the population and value of the colony has greatly increased, and it is rapidly gaining a foremost rank. The want of labour has been largely supplied by emigrants from India and the Islands near Trinidad.

## B A H A M A S.\*

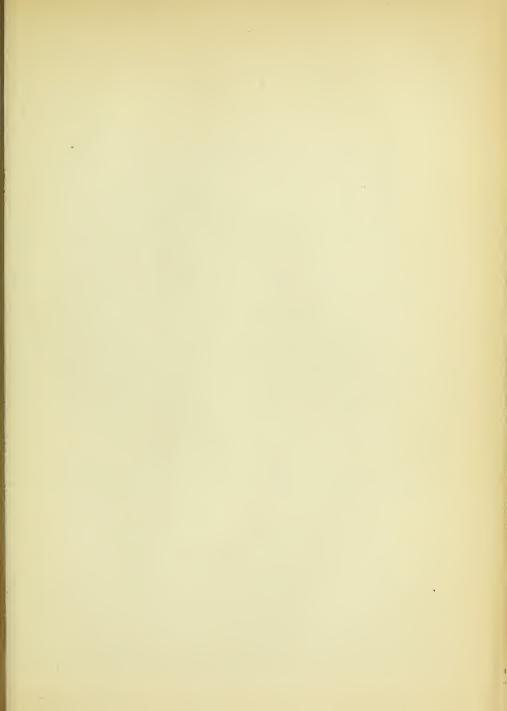
Situation.—The Bahamas are a long and scattered group of islands extending north-wes of Cuba, and contain more than 500 islets or rocks, of which, however, only about 20 are inhabited, or are productive.

Description.—Nearly all the islands are long and narrow, and present a convex shaped side towards the Atlantic. On the eastern side of the group the sea is deep and frequently unfathomable at a short distance from land. At the western side the bed of the sea is raised by coral rocks covered with soil and shells, with numerous pieces of coral reef. This, in connection with the Gulf stream that flows at a rapid rate through the narrow channels, renders the navigation unusually difficult, and is frequently the cause of shipwrecks.

With the exception of Inagua, in which there are high hills, all the islands are low. They are chiefly coral rocks covered with a light sandy soil, possessing considerable

fertility.

<sup>\*</sup> The names of the various islands of this group that are occupied are given on page 94.



Climate and Productions.—The temperature is lower than in the other West Indies the average being about 80° for the whole year. During winter it is occasionally as low as 60°. The air is very healthy. Many of the islands are entirely barren, but others are nearly covered with magnificent forests of mahogany, sandal wood, and the lignum vitae. The southern islands contain natural ponds of salt, from which large quantities of that mineral is obtained. There are no springs or streams, but a plentiful supply of fresh water is readily obtained by digging.

Fruit grows to a state of perfection.

Inhabitants.—The aborigines were removed by the Spaniards to Cuba as slaves. The present inhabitants are of a very mixed description, having colonised the islands since 1629.

Agriculture is followed to a considerable extent. The soil is admirably suited for cotton, but its growth is now greatly diminished. Vegetables and corn, for consumption

in the islands, are grown.

A large number of the people are licensed wreckers, their employment being to rescue

men and goods from the ships wrecked in the vicinity of the islands.

The chief exports are dye-woods, turtles, malogany, fruits, and cotton, valued in 1876 at £106,836. The imports during the same year amounted to £153,614.

Nassau, on the island of New Providence, is the seat of Government.

Government and History.—The Administration is conducted by a Governor assisted by an Executive Council of nine members, a Legislative Council of nine members, and a Representative Assembly of 28 members.

The Turks Islands and Caicos were formed into a separate jurisdiction in 1848, but

were incorporated with Jamaica in 1873 under a Commissioner.

The revenue during 1876 amounted to £41,645, while the expenditure during the

same period was £42,012.

San Salvador, or Cat's Island, is generally accepted as the original island of Guanahani, the first land seen by Columbus in 1492, although Watling Island is said by many to have more authentic claims to that distinction.

The first British colony settled in 1629. It was unsuccessful, as were the succeeding attempts by the same race. The islands were for many years the scene of violent contests between English, French, and Spaniards, but the supremacy of the English was acknowledged in 1783, and it has never since been challenged.

## BERMUDA ISLANDS.

Situation and Extent.—These are a group of islands more than 360 in number, situated in the midst of the Atlantic Ocean, in 32° north latitude and 65° west longitude. The great majority of them are mere rocks, the entire area being estimated at 41 square miles.

General Features.—Only a few of the larger islands are of sufficient size for inhabitation. The five largest are Bermuda (or Long Isle), St. George, Ireland, Somerset, and Boaz. The surface is very low, the highest land being found in Bermuda, where the greatest elevation does not exceed 180 feet. The islands are mostly composed of a white stone called coralline, and their appearance is said to be most beautiful.

There are no streams or springs in any of the islands, the fresh water supply being entirely dependent on the rainfall. At a little distance from the shore the islands are nearly surrounded by a number of coral reefs, in some cases stretching eight miles out to

sea. These render the approach extremely difficult.

Climate and Productions.—The climate is very temperate, the heat being greatly modified by the influence of the Atlantic Ocean. There is no real winter, the islands enjoying a perpetual spring, which keeps the vegetation and grasses in foliage throughout the year. The atmosphere is humid, but healthy, the only drawback being the severe gales that frequently prevail during the winter season.

The soil is extremely fertile, and the climate appears to be particularly suited to the vegetables, potato, onion, beetroot, and tomato. The arrowroot of these islands is of a superior quality. The most remarkable production is the cedar tree, which flourishes to perfection. No other tree can withstand the boisterous gales of the Atlantic. In addition to these cranges, temons, bananas, and peaches are found in a native state.

The coasts abound with fish, and a few miles at sea whales are sufficiently numerous to occupy twelve vessels in their capture from March to June. During the summer

turtle are caught in considerable numbers.

Inhabitants.—The population in 1874 was 15,309, more than one-half being negroes or people of a mixed colour. The chief occupation is the cultivation of vegetables, but considerable numbers are engaged in constructing small vessels of cedar, that are very enduring and swift. The plaiting of straw and palmetto fibre is another mode of employment. Of late years the islands have been used as a convict station, their labour being employed in the construction of a fortress and dockyards on Ireland. That island is now covered with the forts and buildings.

The islands have a considerable trade with the North American colonies, and serve also as a calling station for homeward-bound vessels crossing the Atlantic from the southern hemisphere. The chief articles of export are arrowroot, potatoes, onions, and other vegetables, fruits, and a white freestone, suitable for building purposes. The value of the export trade to the United Kingdom alone in 1877 was £9,430. The imports comprise lumber, ship stores, provisions, and articles of manufacture from the United Kingdom. The value of the goods imported from the British Islands in 1877 was £66,736. The chief American trade is with the port of Halifax, and is of some magnitude.

Towns.—The town of Hamilton, on Bermuda Island, is the residence of the Governor and the seat of Government, while Georgetown, on the island of that name, is the seat of the military authorities. The island of Ireland forms a large town of dock-yards and forts.

Government and History.—The government of the islands is administered by a Governor and an Executive Council of nine members appointed by the Crown. This council is also a Legislative Council, the complete legislatory powers being formed by the addition of an Assembly of 36 members elected by the inhabitants every four years. The public revenue in 1876 was £27,374, the expenditure for the same year £25,788, while the islands have incurred a debt of £11,984.

The islands were first discovered by a Portuguese navigator called Bermudez, in 1522. In 1609 Sir George Somers was wrecked on one of the islands, but succeeded in making a small vessel of the cedars growing on it that took him to the mainland. His description of their beauties led to their colonisation in 1612, and they have ever since remained in

possession of the Crown.

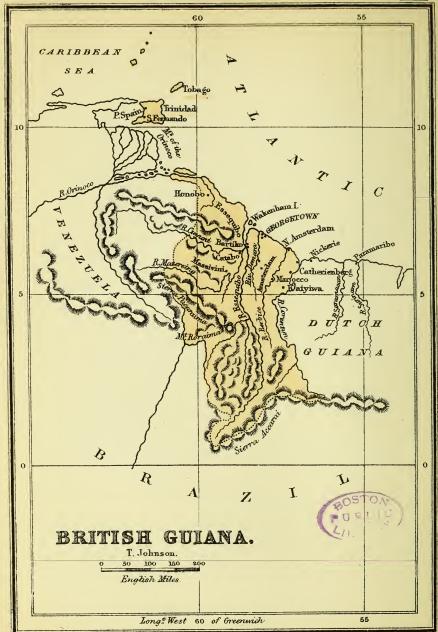
The chief importance of the islands arises from its situation in the midst of the Atlantic. This position is so advantageous that it forms the head-quarters of the Admiral of the Halifax station in the summer.

## BRITISH HONDURAS.

Situation.—British Honduras occupies a portion of the peninsula of Yucatan, the province of that name forming its northern and western boundary. South lies the country of Guatemala, while eastward is the Gulf of Mexico. The boundaries are very indefinitely fixed—the River Hondo being the northern and the River Sarstoon the southern. The province stretches into the interior about 70 miles. The area is very differently given by various authorities, the smallest estimate being 6,400, and the largest 13,500 square miles.

Surface.—The interior is hilly, some of the peaks attaining considerable height. Cockscoombe Hill, in the central district, is 4,000 feet high. A narrow belt of low swampy land lies around the coast. Numerous broad rivers flow through the colony,





making communication with the interior easy. Between its northern and southern extremities more than sixteen navigable rivers enter the sea, these being connected with numerous tributaries and fresh-water lagoons. The chief rivers are New River and Belize River.

Climate and Productions.—The climate may be summarized as moist and hot, and very unhealthy. There are two seasons—the wet, from June to February, and the dry, from March to June. During the rainy season there are several intervals of very

fine weather. The fever called "Yellow Fever" is very prevalent.

The greater portion of the country is still covered by forests. Mahogany and logwood have been exported for many years, and are still the most valuable articles of produce. It is estimated that more than one-third of the surface is covered with the cocoanut palm. Other trees abundantly found are rosewood, cedar, pine, and caoutchouc. The shrubs from which castor-oil, ipecacuanha, sarsaparilla, agave, and indigo are obtained grow in a wild state.

The forests contain numerous wild animals, among which are the puma, jaguar, and

numerous fur-bearing animals. The turtle is also abundant on the coasts.

Inhabitants.—Although the population numbers 22,700, only about 400 are whites, the remainder being chiefly negroes. Agriculture is but little practised, although the soil is very rich and well suited for sugar, tobacco, cotton, coffee, and rice. Sugar now receives some attention, and has proved very successful. Cutting wood and its export is the main source of employment. Several establishments at Belize engage workmen, and the wood is cut for these firms, who export it.

Besides mahogany and logwood, the exports consist of small quantities of sarsaparilla, ipecacuanha, rosewood, hides, tortoise shell, fustic, cochineal, and indigo. The country possesses properties sufficient to place it in the foremost rank of British colonies if properly

conducted.

Belize, on the river of that name, is the capital, and centre of trade. Corosal is a rising town situated further north, and is becoming of considerable importance.

Government and History.—The colony is a Crown colony, under the control of a Lieutenant-Governor. Prior to 1862 it was a dependency of Jamaica, but was then created a separate colony. Honduras was discovered by Columbus in 1502. Early in the seventeenth century English buccaneers visited it for mahogany and logwood. The trade became so important, that on the claims of Spain becoming acknowledged, several treaties were made, giving the English rights regarding the wood-cutting. Upon the outbreak of war with Spain, 1798, the English captured this province, and have since retained possession.

The colony is increasing in value, and with the general adoption of agricultural pursuits, would become the chief of the British possessions in this part of the world.

# BRITISH GUIANA.

Situation, &c.—British Guiana lies on the north-east coast of South America, between the mouths of the Rivers Orinoco and Corentyn, and stretching inland for more than 400 miles. It is bounded on the north by the Atlantic Ocean, east by Dutch Guiana, south by Brazil, and west by Brazil and Venezuela. The average width is nearly 300 miles; the area being little less than 100,000 square miles.

Surface.—The northern portion is low and but slightly elevated above the sea level. The soil is very rich, and all the land except that occupied for cultivation is covered with forests. Southward the country becomes more picturesque, rising in terraces towards the interior until the elevation averages nearly 3,000 feet. Two mountain ranges form the higher terraces, the more northerly being the Sierra Pacaraima, and the southern range Sierra Accarai. Mount Roraima, in the former, is 7,500 feet high.

The rivers are numerous and of great importance. The River Essequibo, with its tributaries Mazereing and Cuyuni, is the most important, while Demerara River and

Berbice River are of great commercial value. These rivers are navigable by boats for a considerable distance inland.

Climate and Productions.—There are two dry and two wet seasons in each year, the former occurring from March to June, and from August to December, and the latter in the intervals between them. The dry seasons are said to be very pleasant, and the climate altogether is not particularly unhealthy to Europeans.

The resources of this colony have not yet been fully discovered, as the interior is still practically unexplored. The soil near the coast is very fertile, and well suited for cultivation. Nearly all the the surface is at present covered with forests of mahogany, logwood, cedar, pines, oaks, coca shrub, and plantain, while tobacco, cassava, cacao, and

indigo occur in a natural state.

The wild animals are numerous, and contain specimens of most of the species found in South America. The puma and jaguar roam through the forests, while the tapir, llama, agouli, paca, and guinea-pig are numerous. Venomous and other snakes, alligators, and insects abound. The latter are the great pest of the inhabitants, the worst being the members of the ant family.

Inhabitants.—The population numbers nearly 200,000. Only about 1,500 are of European birth, and there are not more than 7,000 native Indians, the whole of the remainder being emigrants and descendants of former settlers. There are nearly 60,000 Coolies who have been brought by the Government from India and China to meet the demand for labourers. Sugar is the chief article of produce, and is of a very superior quality. It is asserted that, with sufficient labour, enough sugar could be raised in the colony to supply the world. The machinery is of a superior description, steam-power being generally adopted. The estates are, almost without exception, near the sea, or on the banks of the rivers.

Of late years the timber trade has been rapidly growing in importance. The supply

of wood fit for shipbuilding is almost inexhaustible.

The exports are almost entirely confined to sugar, molasses, rum, and timber. The value of this trade in 1877 was £3,049,157. The chief articles imported were British manufactures.

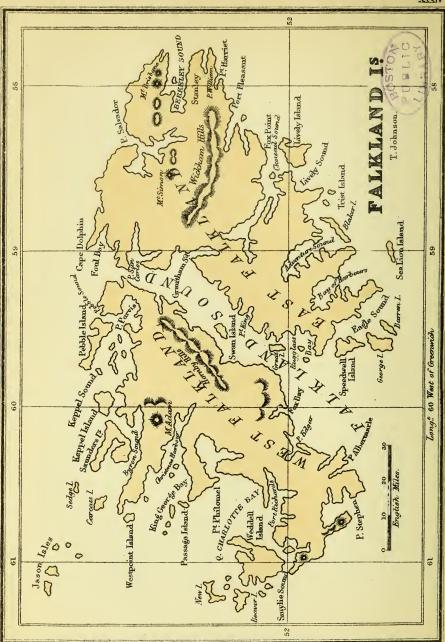
Divisions and Towns.—Guiana is divided into three provinces, each occupying a certain part of the coast. The most northerly is Essequibo; the central, Demerara; and the southern, Berbice.

Georgetown, in Demerara, is the chief town and capital; next in importance is New Amsterdam in Berbice. Other towns of small size are Honobo, Bartiko, Catabo, and Marocco.

Government.—This is conducted after the Dutch method. There are two houses —Upper and Lower. The upper consists of four official and six elected members. The elected members are chosen by a body of men elected by the tax-payers, and called Kiezers. The Governor has a veto on every election. The lower house is formed of six members, but they meet only to pass measures of taxation conjointly with the upper house. Practically the authority is in the hands of the Crown officials. The revenue in 1877 amounted to £389,871, the expenditure for the same period being £380,773.

History.—This portion of South America was first discovered by the Spaniards. Sir Walter Raleigh brought it before the notice of Europe in 1595, and colonies were established by the Dutch in 1624, and by the English and French in 1634. In 1667 the English surrendered their settlements to the Dutch. When the Dutch and the French united against England at the close of the 18th century, Sir R. Abercromby captured the Dutch portion. It was, however, restored in 1802 to be re-captured in 1803, when the portion west of the river Corentyn was proclaimed British territory, and was formally ceded in 1814. Each of the three prior to 1831 formed a separate settlement, but in that year they were united to form one colony.





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### FALKLAND ISLANDS.

Situation, &c.—This group is situated about 300 miles east of the Straits of Magellan. It consists of West Franklyn, 2,000 square miles; East Franklyn, 2.700 square miles; and a large number of islets having altogether an area of 4,740 square miles.

Description.—The coast contains a great number of indentations forming many safe harbours. The surface is generally low and level. A range of hills—Wickham Hills—crosses East Franklyn, the highest peak being about 2,300 feet. Mount Adam, a p-ak in West Franklyn, is about 2,130 feet high. West Franklyn is the most elevated as a whole.

Climate.—The climate closely resembles that of England, but is of lower temperature. Corn and fruits will not ripen on account of the low summer heat, and from the same cause it results that there are no trees but only a few shrubs. Large areas are moorland or b. g; some valleys, however, have rich soil, producing valuable grass.

Pigs, rabbits, wild oxen, and birds abound, while horses and sheep are kept and thrive

in some districts.

Inhabitants.—The population is about 1,140, of whom 390 are females. Corn, turnips, and potatoes cannot be successfully cultivated. Agriculture is a complete failure. The value of the islands arises from their position as a whaling station. The annual value of the imports is about £27,000, while the exports amount to £86,000. The chief items of exports are wool, hides, tallow, sealskin, and oil. Sydney is the only town.

SOUTH GEORGIA is a large island (1,570 square miles) situated 800 miles south east of Falkland Islands. It is uninhabited, and at present forms a part of the colony of

Falkland.

Government and History.—The administration is conducted by a Governor assisted by an executive and a legislative council, the members being appointed by the Crown. Falkland was discovered by Davis in 1592, and claimed for the English. They did not declare their claim until 1765, after it had been settled by France and Spain. Spain refused to acknowledge the English right, but this was granted by treaty in 1770. Buenos Ayres formed a settlement in 1820, but were driven out by the United States in 1831. England resumed her authority over the islands in 1833, establishing a small colony, the chief object being the protection of the whale fisheries in their neighbourhood.

# PART V.

# BRITISH EMPIRE IN AUSTRALASIA.

#### AUSTRALIA.

Situation.—Australia is an island, continental in size, situated in the Southern Hemisphere, between the parallels of 10° 40′ and 38° 53′ south latitude, and the meridians of 113° and 153° 38′ east longitude. On the north and west it is washed by the Indian Ocean. The sea on the south is generally called the Southern Ocean. The east is washed by the Pacific Ocean.

Australia is between the same parallels in south latitude as India in north latitude. The North-west Cape is 1,900 miles south-east of Singapore, and more than 4,000 miles

from Calcutta.

Extent.—This immense island is about four-fifths the size of Europe, its area being estimated as exceeding 2,950,000 square miles. Its compact shape gives it more features of continental geography than are possessed by Europe, and Australia is generally called a continent.

The most easterly point is Cape Byron in longitude 153° 38′ east. The most westerly land is Steep Point, south of Dirk Hartog Island, in longitude 113° east. The length of the island between these points is more than 2,500 miles, while the breadth between Cape York (latitude 10° 40′ south) and Cape Otway (latitude 38° 53′ south) is 1,925 miles. These are the greatest measurements; the average breadth is not more than 1,200 miles.

Coast and Seas.—The coast line is very little indented except by an almost innumerable series of small bays. There is one large bay in the north and another in the south, although the name is scarcely applicable to the latter. The shores of the Gulf of Carpentaria and the Great Australian Bight are low. That on the eastern side consists chiefly of high rocks, while the western is formed by a succession of low shores and high cliffs.

A series of coral reefs, called the Great Barrier Reefs, runs off the eastern shore from Cape York to as far south as 22° south latitude. The channel between this reef and the coast varies in width from 15 to 100 miles, the average breadth being about 30 miles. This channel is easily navigated, and there are a few passages through the reefs connecting it with the sea outside, but these are dangerous and navigated with difficulty. The coral reef rises precipitously from the ocean on the eastern side, and forms a natural breakwater enclosing a vast harbour, which is generally quite safe.

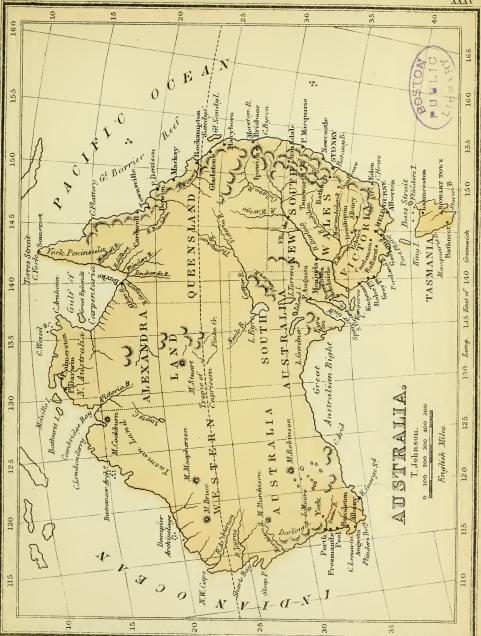
Torres Strait is the Channel lying between Cape York and the island of Papua or New Guinea. It is ninety miles in width. The navigation is rendered very difficult by the

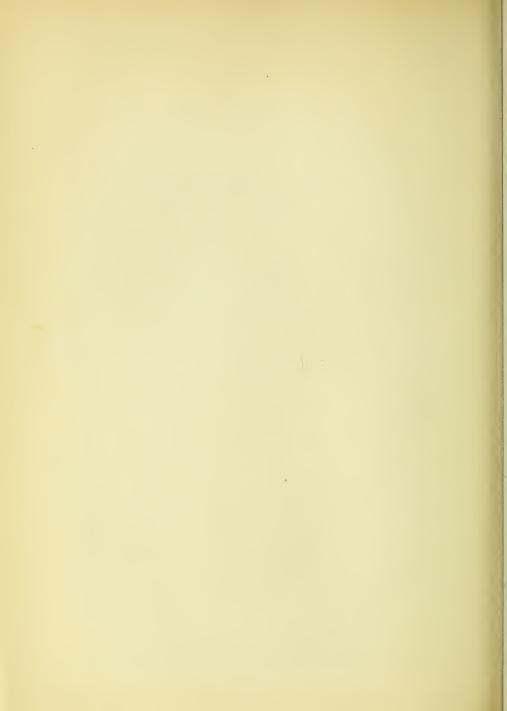
great number of coral rocks and islets interspersed throughout its extent.

Bass Strait, South of Wilson Promontry, lies between that portion of Australia and Tasmania. Its width is about 150 miles. Although there are numerous islets and rocks,

the obstruction is not so great as in Torres Strait.

The Southern Ocean is the name generally given to those portions of the Indian and Pacific Oceans that lie south of Australia. The limit of these two seas is generally considered as being at the meridian of 145° east longitude. The water is generally deep close by the shore. That portion of the Pacific which lies east of the Great Barrier Reef is named the Coral Sea from the great number of coral rocks contained within it.





Headlands.—The most prominent capes are Cape York, in the north, 10° 40′ south latitude; North-west Cape, 114° 3′ east longitude; Cape Catastrophe, 35° 51′ south; Cape Wilson, 38° 8′, and Sandy Cape. In addition there are a great number of lesser importance. The following are the chief:—

On the East: Čapes Grenville, Direction, Melville, Flattery, Bedford, Tribulation, Grafton, Palmerston, Townsend, Sandy Cape, Point Danger, Cape Byron (most easterly

point on mainland 153° 39' east longitude), Sugar-Loaf Point, and Cape Howe.

On the South: Capes Wilson, Otway, Nelson, Spencer, Catastrophe, Arid, Bald Head, Chatham, and Leeuwin.

On the West: Cape Naturaliste, Steep Point, Cape Cuvier, Point Cloates, North-west

Cape, and Capes Boillieu, Baskerville, Leveque, and Bougainville.

On the North: Capes Londonderry, Hay, Blaze, Van Diemen, De Courcey Head, Capes Arnhem, and York.

Peninsulas.—The principal peninsulas are Cape York Peninsula, terminating in Cape York; Coburg Peninsula, north-west of Arnhem Land; Dampier Land, on the west; Yorke Peninsula, in the south.

Openings.—Although there are few inland seas, the number of good harbours around the coast is very great. These inlets are of considerable size; many, apparently insignificant from their appearance on a small map, are capable of holding a large fleet. The most important of the bays and gulfs are:—

On the East: Temple, Lloyd, Princess Charlotte, Trinity, Rockingham, Halifax, and Bowling Green Bays, Port Denison, Repulse and Shoalwater Bays, Port Bowen, Keppel Bay, Port Curtis, Hervey, Laguna, Moreton, Shoal, Trial, Broken, Botany, Jervis, Bateman.

and Twofold Bays.

On the South: Corner Inlet, Ports Western and Philip, Portland, Discovery, and Encounter Bays, Gulf St. Vincent, Spencer Gulf, Coffin, Anxious, Streaky, and Doubtful Bays, King George Sound, and Flinders Bay.

On the West: Geographe Bay, Peel Inlet, Champion and Shark Bays, Exmouth Gulf, La Grange and Roebuck Bays, King Sound, Collier and Brunswick Bays, York and Mont-

ague Sounds, and Admiralty Gulf.

On the North: Cambridge Gulf, Queens Channel, Anson Bay, Port Darwin, Adam Bay, Van Diemens Gulf, Mount Norris, Junction, Castlereagh, Arnhem, Melville, Caledon, and Blue Mud Bays, and Limmen Bight.

Islands.—A large number of islets lie in the neighbourhood of the coasts. These are at present of little importance as the great resources of the mainland are more than

sufficient for all the inhabitants. The majority are uninhabited.

On the East: Flinders, Howick, and Lizard Islands, Palm Islands, Hinchinbrooke Islands, Cumberland Islands, Northumberland, Keppel Islands, Curtis (150 square miles), Sandy (1,100 square miles), Lord Howes, Moreton (120 square miles), Stradbroke (120 square miles), and Solitary Islands, the majority being small.

On the South: King (750 square miles), Kangaroo (1,900 square miles), and

Investigator Island, Nuyts, and Recherche Archipelagoes.

On the West: Houtman, Dirk Hartog (300 square miles), Dorre, Bernier, Barrow, and Monte Bello Islands, Dampier, and Buccaneer Archipelagoes, Vulcan Islands, and

Bigge Island.

On the North: Bathurst (600 square miles), and Melvile Islands (2,400 square miles), Wessel Islands, English Company Islands, Groote Eylandt (630 square miles), Sir Edward Pelew Group, Wellesley (400 square miles), Bentinck, Prince of Wales, Mulgrave, and Banks Islands.

Divisions.—The whole of the island west of the meridian of 129° east longitude is called Western Australia; east of this and north of 26° south latitude is North Australia, stretching as far east as 138° east longitude; south of North Australia is South Australia, extending three degrees further east; the eastern side of the island is occupied by Queensland, New South Wales, and Victoria.

Mountains.—Nearly the whole of the Australian Mountains lie near to, and parallel with, the eastern and western coasts. These hills form a broad plateau often 100 miles wide, with a considerable elevation, the eastern range being higher and more extensive than the western.

The eastern range stretches from Port Philip in the south to Cape York in the north, receiving various names in different portions of the range. In Victoria and the south of New South Wales it is called the Australian Alps. This portion has an average height of more than 4,000 feet. Mount Kosciusko, inside the borders of New South Wales, is 7,200 feet high, while Mount Hotham and Mount Latrobe, in Victoria, are both above 6,000 feet. North of the Australian Alps this cordillera is called the Blue Mountains, the average height of which is much less, the highest peak being only 4,000 feet. Further north it receives the names of Liverpool Range and New England Range in New South Wales, and of Denham Range and North Dividing Range in Queensland. In the northern portion the height becomes much lower. This range rises almost precipitously on the side facing the ocean, but towards the interior the slope becomes so gradual that it is frequently scarcely perceptible. The western group is much lower in elevation, only a few peaks reaching the height of 3,000 feet, the average being less than 2,000 feet. The southern portions are called the Stirling and Darling Ranges.

Two important ranges besides the Australian Alps are found in Victoria running parallel with that range. These are known as the *Pyrenees* and the *Grampians*. Mount William, the highest summit in the Grampians, attains an elevation of 4,700 feet, but the average height of the range is much less. An extensive range (Flinders Range), 400 miles in length, is found in South Australia, commencing west of Port Eliot, and reaching northward beyond the parallel of 30° south latitude. Several elevations are above 3,000ft, high.

Numerous detached ranges of hills are now known to exist in the interior, having been discovered during the investigations made within the last twenty years. These are of comparatively little elevation and importance. Amongst the chief are:—

McKinlay Range, Johnson Range, and Mount Pluto, in the central portions of

Queensland.

Grey Range and Stanley Range, with Mount Lyel, in the west of New South Wales.

Musgrave Range, Bagot Range, Denison Range, and Stuart Range, in the north and centre of South Australia.

Petermann Range, McDonnell Range, Reynolds Range, with Mount Freeling, Central Mount Stuart, McDouall Range, Whittington Range, Ellesmere Range, and Wickham Range, with Mount Warburton, in North Australia.

Barlee Range, Murchison Mountain, Mount Kenneth, Mount Churchman, Alfred

and Marie Range, Stephen Range, and Mount Cockburn, in West Australia.

It is a remarkable feature that all the important ranges yet discovered run in the direction of the meridians.

There are no active volcanoes known to exist, although several extinct craters are found near the southern coasts. *Mount Wingen*, a hill situated south of the *Liverpool Range*, emits great heat, together with sulphurous fumes. The highest portions of the coast ranges are the watersheds of the coast rivers, and those of the interior.

Plains.—The interior of Australia was long believed to consist of little but a huge arid desert, possessing no streams, and totally unfit for human occupation. No attempts to cross the continent were made in the early part of the nineteenth century, and no attempt was successful before 1861, when Burke and Wills crossed from the Gulf of Carpentaria to Spencer Gulf, while McDouall Stuart was performing a similar feat further west. Investigation has since been actively conducted, the most famous travellers being McKinley, Landsborough, Walker, Warburton, and Giles.

The discoveries made by these pioneers have thrown great light on the character of the interior, and show that the suppositions formerly entertained were unsupported by the real state of the facts, as by far the greater portion is covered with good grass, and

immense tracts are well watered by large rivers.

The principal conclusion to be gathered from the results of the various journeys is, that through the centre of the island runs a ridge of Highlands from north to south—Flinders Range being the southern portion, and Ellesmere Range the northern, dividing the interior into two vast plains, having the coast ranges as boundaries on the sides towards the sea. These may be appropriately referred to as the Great Eastern and Western Plains.

The Great Eastern plain is the one that has been most carefully investigated, and from the facts already discovered, is the most valuable. From its eastern boundary the slope to the interior is so gradual that it is in some places insufficient to drain off the water. Speaking generally, this immense tract, which includes more than 1,000,000 square

miles of land, is well suited for pasture, the grass being of fair quality, and the land moderately well watered. Numerous rivers formerly unknown are now shown to exist, and it is extremely probable that their number will still be largely increased as the interior becomes opened up.

Various portions of this plain are known by particular names. The best known of these are Adelaide Plain, Liverpool Plain, Darling and Brisbane Downs, McLeay Plains,

Bowen Downs, Hope Plains, Great Stoney Desert, and Johns Plain.

The Adelaide Plain is a fertile district, lying west of the Flinders Range, and south of the River Murray. The soil is very productive, and amongst the richest in the continent.

The Liverpool Plains, Brisbane, Darling Downs, and Bowen Downs, are elevated terraces lying close to the coast range, and varying in height from 2,000 feet in the south to 900 feet in the north. They are covered with excellent grasses, and are famed for their usefulness as pasturage.

McLeay Plain is a fertile tract of land lying north of New South Wales, around

the upper courses of several small rivers.

Hope Plains are a series of fertile tracts lying north of the small lake Lipson, in the

north-east of South Australia.

Great Stoney Desert is a tract of waste land immediately west of the Hope Plains, extending southward to the Barcoo or Cooper Creek, having an area of 12,000 square miles. Johns Plain is situated immediately east of the dividing ridge; the herbage is of a

superior character.

Very little is yet known regarding that portion of the eastern plain west of Queensland; but it is now almost certain that this will also be found to be better than was formerly believed. The sources of several rivers have been discovered on the central highlands, their courses apparently leading through this district, so that it is extremely probable that this portion will be found to be one of the most fertile in the continent.

The Great Western plain was previous to 1874 considered to be one great desert extending through the entire breadth of the continent. This has, however, now been shown to be incorrect, and every journey in this direction demonstrates that the real area

of the desert is much less than was originally supposed.

On the west the coast range occupies a strip of land nearly 250 miles wide, the intervening valleys and land adjoining the hills being fertile. From King George Sound to Spencer Gulf, however, the land is low and level, and the coast district is entirely barren. According to present information this desert land stretches inland to the parallel of 27° covering an area of 360,000 square miles. The west central portion of this waste is called the Great Victoria Desert. It must be remembered, however, that very little information has been obtained regarding this tract, which has only once been crossed (by Giles, in 1875), and further investigation may show that the real state is much more satisfactory. The journeys of 1874 showed that north of this desert, and extending to the sea, are a series of rich grass plains of immense extent, and known to reach beyond the meridian of 126° in the north, and of 124° in the south portion. The country east of these meridians is little known, although some rich grass land was discovered in 1875, and a sandy desert is known to exist towards the north east.

The surface of both of the great plains is almost unbroken, only a few small ranges being known within their confines. The western plain is supposed to be very deficient in water throughout. This is known to be the case in the coast district on the south.

Rivers.—Australia is supplied with a large number of rivers, the greater portion rising in the hills near the coast, and flowing direct to the sea. There is but one river (the Murray) which is at all proportionate to the size of the continent amongst those yet known, and it may now be safely assumed from the evidence of recent explorers that no other large river exists. The coasts have long been the subject of search for the outlet of a large river by which communication with the interior might be conducted, but these attempts have all signally failed. The best known of the rivers are—

Entering the East Coast.—Kennedy River, Endeavour River, Burdekin River (tributaries, Clarke River and Belyando), Fitzroy River, Burnett River, Richmond River, Clarence River, McLeay River, Manning River, Hunter River, Hawkesbury River, Shoalhaven River.

Entering the South Coast—Snowy River, River Glenelg, River Murray (tributaries, Darling River, Warrego River, Bogan, Macquarie River, Castlereagh and Peel Rivers), Lachlan (Murrumbidgee), Loddon River, and Blackwood River.

Entering the West Coast.—Swan River, Perth River, Moore River, Arrowsmith River, Murchison River, Gascoyne River, (tributary, Lyon River), Ashburton River, Fortescue River, Sherlock River, Yule River, De Grey River, (tributaries, Strelley, and Shaw, and Prince Regent Rivers.)

Entering the North Coast.—Stirling Creek, Victoria River, (tributary, Wickham River), Daly River, Adelaide River, Alligator River, Roper River, Red Kangaroo River, McArthur, Van Alphen, Wentworth, Nicholson and Flinders Rivers, (tributary, Cloncary)

River), Norman River, (tributary, Bynoe River), Gilbert and Mitchell Rivers.

Rivers not entering the Sea—Driffield River, (tributary, Finke Creek, course unknown), Treuer River, Cooper River, Frome River, entering Lake Eyrie; Brulo River, Paroo River.

Several of these streams are known, or supposed, to disappear from evaporation.

The River Murray rises on the western slopes of the Alps, near Mount Kosciusko, and has for the greater portion of its course a westerly direction; near its mouth, however, it bends to the south and enters the sea at Encounter Bay, passing through Lake Alexandrina. It receives two important tributaries—the Murrumbidgee and the Darling, both of which are navigable by small craft. From its mouth, to the junction of the Darling River, the Murray has an average width of nearly 200 yards, and a depth of from 20 to 40 feet, the former being the depth over sand banks. Above this junction the average depth is not more than 16 feet, and above the entrance of the Murrumbidgee the depth is much less. The Murray and these tributaries are navigable from May to December, and in years of heavy rainfall during the whole year.

The majority of the rivers on the west and north coasts are as yet only partially traced. It is anticipated that some of these are larger than the ordinary Australian streams. The Murchison River is one of the longest of these, and although its sources have not been reached it has been traced through a length of more than 500 miles. The River Victoria, on the northern coast, has also been lately investigated, and will probably be the scene of a new colony. Flinders River, entering the Gulf of Carpentaria, has a length exceeding 500 miles. Many of the rivers on the north have navigable

mouths, but at a little distance inland they become mere streams.

Lakes.—Very few real lakes of magnitude are found in Australia, the majority known by that name being collections of rain water during the rainy season, and marshy districts during the summer heats. In the western portion of the Great Victoria Desert there are many salt pools and some lakes of considerable size. Most of the lakes that endure the summer heat without drying entirely, diminish their areas to a great extent. The following table shows the position of the chief lakes in the interior:—

LAKE.	SITUATION.	Length.	Breadth	Area.
		Miles.	Miles.	Sq. Miles.
Eyre	South-east of the Denison Range	115	50	4,600
Frome	East of Flinders Range (North)			
Torrens	North of Spencer Gulf	130	20	1,950
Gairdner Island	North-west of Spencer Gulf	135	40	2,700
Younghusband	Between Lakes Gardner and Torrens		·	
Amadeus	North of Petermann Range			
Woods	North of Whittington Range			
Salt Lakes	South of the Sandy Desert	140	20	1,400
Austin	South-west of Mount Murchison	75	20	1,125
Moore	North of Mount Churchman			
Barlee	East of Lake Moore			
Salt Lakes)				
Cowan	South of Victoria Desert			•••
Lefroy				
Tyrrell	North of New South Wales			•••

Along the coast are several lagoons, the chief of which are Lake Alexandrina, the Coorong, and Lake Bungaa. Nearly all the Australian lakes are salt.

Climate.—Australia being situated in the southern hemisphere, the seasons are just the reverse of what they are in Europe. Thus December, January, February, and March are the four hottest months, while May, June, July, and August are in the midst of the winter. A large portion of North Australia is within the tropics, and is subjected to the action of the monsoons. In this part the rainy season is confined to a short period, but the fall of rain is rather severe, although not excessive. The rainy season generally occurs between March and April.

The southern half has a far greater number of rainy days, but the rainfall is not so great, and, instead of occurring at the same time as in the northern half, the fall is

during the winter months, i.e., April to September.

Throughout the continent, the heat in summer is occasionally excessive. The portion within the tropics has a high average temperature throughout the year, but Southern Australia does not exceed the mean temperature of England by more than 15° Fahrenheit. The winter in this district is more marked than in the north, the summits of the higher hills being often covered with snow, and the cold in the plains is at times considerable. Within the tropics the winter is the dry season, so that the summer heat is modified by the rain, and consequently the variation between the winter and summer mean of temperature is very little. The winter of South Australia is frequently compared to a wet English summer.

The worst feature in the Australian climate is the long-continued droughts to which all parts are subject, but these are not so prevalent in the eastern districts as in the central and western portions. These droughts are the greatest trouble of the agricul-

turists and stock-keepers.

The deserts are almost continually subjected to extreme heat, and it is estimated that their mean temperature for a year is but little below that of the Sahara Desert in North Africa. Hot winds blow from them, greatly raising the temperature of the neigh-

bouring districts.

The climate is regarded as one of the most healthy in the world, and, in spite of the heat, which in the northern portion is greatly in excess of that of England, emigrants from the British Islands find it admirably adapted to their constitutions, after the first effects of the increased heat have been counteracted. Many assert that the majority of Englishmen find it more favourable to health than the climate of their native land. The continent is not known to be subjected to even one periodical complaint, and throughout the inhabited districts the air is bracing and fairly equable.

The rainfall is comparatively slight in the central and western districts, but is heavier in the north and south. At Sydney the average yearly rainfall is about 25 inches, the number of rainy days being 150. Within the tropics the rainfall is heavier, but the number of rainy days considerably less. In the south-west the mean annual temperature

is about 69° Fahrenheit.

Minerals.—The minerals of Australia are very numerous, and comprise nearly the whole of the more useful as well as the precious metals. Gold, copper, iron, lead, coal, silver, mercury, tin, and zinc are the most abundant, the supplies of some of them being

considered practically inexhaustible.

Gold is at present the most extensively worked, the auriferous deposits extending throughout the whole of the eastern range of hills, but the greatest quantities occur in Victoria. Formerly the workings were chiefly holes sunk in the soil to the depth of from six to thirty feet, for the purpose of collecting the deposits found near the surface in various districts. In addition nuggets and dust were frequently obtained in the beds of small streams. Now this plan is of necessity superseded, and the gold has to be obtained by the aid of mining machinery from quartz rocks, in which it is found in considerable abundance. The average of the Victoria gold fields is given as eleven or twelve pennyweights of gold in each ton of quartz.

The value of the gold exported annually from Australia is probably not less than

£15,000,000.

Copper, if not the most important metal, is second only to gold. It is found in the largest quantities in the districts around Spencer Gulf. The ore is purer and more abundant than in any other known portion of the globe, except, perhaps, than in the neighbourhood of Lake Superior, in British America. The supply may be considered as inexhaustible.

Iron occurs in varying degrees throughout the whole of the continent, but cannot be compared in importance with either of the preceding minerals. It is but slightly worked.

Lead is abundantly obtained in the neighbourhood of Spencer Gulf.

Coal of an excellent quality is found in inexhaustible quantities in several districts. The most valuable coal-fields are in the country around Hunter's River, the South Liverpool Range, and Swan River.

**Vegetation.**—Australia is singularly deficient in fruits or roots fit for human food, it having long been thought that none such were to be found in any part of the continent. Of late years, however, the *yam* and a few *edible roots* have been discovered, as well as a kind of *fig.* Neither of these, however, is found in any considerable quantity.

The magnificent timber trees of tropical and sub-tropical Africa, America, and Asia, are not found in this continent, nor are there any others worthy of occupying their place. The chief species of trees consist of a large variety of gum trees called the eucalyptus, a tree somewhat of the same character as the myrtle, and some magnificent firs.

The forests present a very different appearance to those woods which add such beauty to the appearance of England, the trees being scattered and without that abundant foliage which makes their appearance so impressive. In Australia the leaves of the trees are few, and generally attached to the tree vertically instead of horizontally.

The greater portion of the vegetation is comprised of evergreens, acacias, arborescent ferns, gigantic nettles and other weeds, which in Europe attain only an insignificant size.

The fern frequently grows to the height of 20 feet before it throws out leaves. From the upper portion these leaves branch out in all directions, the length of one leaf being frequently more than five feet.

The nettle also grows to a great size, while in the northern portions a lily called the

New Holland lily is found, which at a mature age is more than 20 feet high.

An abundance of coarse grass in great variety is found in all the large plains, forming good and extensive pasture lands. The grass is, however, far from equal to that produced by cultivation, and a flock of sheep requires an extensive district to enable it to be properly fed.

Flowers, with great beauty of colour, are plentiful, but in the majority of cases they

are without perfume. Sweet-smelling herbs are, however, very numerous.

The land in the vicinity of the northern and north-eastern coasts contain several specimens of the vegetation found in the Malayan Archipelago. The chief of these is the

palm, which is also the most abundant.

The food plants used in Europe have all been introduced, and all grow equally as well as in their native homes. Large crops of wheat, barley, and rye are annually obtained, and the potato, turnip, and other vegetables are extensively grown. Many other useful plants have also been introduced, the most important of those successfully cultivated being the cotton plant, vine, fig, orange, and peach.

Zoology.—The animals of Australia form one of its chief peculiarities. In no other continent are there so few species or individuals. Three classes of animals, viz., the quadrumana, (monkeys, &c.), pachyderms (thick-skinned), and ruminants (ruminating) are entirely unrepresented, whilst the carnivora have no larger representative than the wild dog. In contrast with these is the great proportion of the marsupial or pouched class, of which it

is estimated that more than half are to be found within Australia.

The names of the principal animals are the kangaroo, wombat, dingo, ornithorynchus, porcupine, sloth, ant-eater, and bandicoot. These are so remarkable that a short description of some is essential. The kangaroo family consists of several species, all of which are natives of Australia. The head and neck are small, the lower portions gradually getting much larger. The fore legs are about eighteen inches long, the hinder ones being more than three feet six inches in length. The head is something like that of a deer, and the ears are large. The length of the kangaroo frequently exceeds nine feet. The dingo is a species of wild dog. It is fierce, and its attacks on sheep make it a great source of annoyance to stock-keepers. The ornithorynchus is one of the most peculiar animals on the globe. It has somewhat of a resemblance to the otter, but has a bill very much like that of a duck, while it also lays eggs. Being very shy, the animal is approached with great difficulty.

Although none of the useful animals are natives, they were introduced in the early periods of colonisation, and are now found in vast numbers. The horse is equal to its kindred in any other continent, while the oxen are numerous both as domestic animals and in a wild state. Sheep have so rapidly multiplied that there are at present nearly forty-five

millions of them in the country.

The birds are scarcely less remarkable than the animals. The largest is the emu or cassowary, a bird somewhat similar to the ostrich, and of large size. Others are the black swan, a species of thrush, the eagle, falcon, hawk, and parroquet. There is almost a complete absence of song-birds. The honey-suckers supply the place of the hummingbirds of Central America, and in North Australia the bird of paradise is found.

Insect life is unusually abundant. There are three species of bees, but none of them

sting. The common house fly is a great post.

Several varieties of snakes are found, some of them being venomous. The alliquitor is numerous on the banks of the northern rivers, and lizards, scorpions, and centipedes

are found throughout the island.

The rivers, lakes, and seas abound with good fish, the majority being of different species from those found in the European seas. Large quantities of cod are caught, and the whale and seal fisheries are of great importance, and are capable of being considerably extended and made almost a branch of national industry.

Inhabitants.—These are of two classes—the colonists and the aborigines. The number of the former is rapidly increasing, it being estimated at the close of 1877 to be over 2,500,000. The majority of them are emigrants from the British Islands. Other European nations are represented, but the proportions are small, the only one worthy of mention being the German. The aborigines of Australia are fast disappearing. They are members of a branch of the negro family, and are generally distinguished as the Papuan-Negroes. In intelligence and customs they are very inferior to the true negro, some tribes being the most degraded of all the great human family. Their colour is a dark brown or chocolate; they have projecting cheek bones, wide nostrils, strong heavy jaws, long black hair, and rather narrow heads. In stature they are less than the average Englishman. In the majority of tribes the customs are revolting to civilised life. No clothing is worn, and every creature that can be seized is greedily eaten—worms, grubs, &c., forming choice articles of diet. A few superior tribes wear skins, and their habits more closely resemble those of intelligent savage nations. The chief reason for this demoralised condition is undoubtedly the difficulty of obtaining proper food from the native vegetation. The number of this race remaining is very indefinite, the data being so insufficient that most. authorities assert that even a guess cannot be made with reasonable ground for belief in its correctness. It is, however, believed that their number is about 200,000.

History.—According to the best authorities Australia was first discovered by the Dutch about 1540, but very little was known about it for many years later. In 1606 the Dutch visited the island, and gave it the name of New Holland, bringing home with them vivid accounts of the beauties of this new land. Nothing trustworthy, however, was known until the visits of Dampier, Wallis, and Cook. The latter investigated the coast in the neighbourhood of Sydney, and it was in consequence of his favourable opinion that Botany Bay was chosen as the site of the first penal settlement in 1788. As the commanding officer did not like this part as well as Jackson's Bay, he formed the establishment on the latter, and this has now grown into the capital of a flourishing colony. The effect of the convict labour showed the powers of the land, and emigrants soon followed, hoping to establish themselves satisfactorily. The want of labourers was met by allowing the prisoners to work, under certain restrictions, for landowners who desired their services. On the colony becoming more thickly settled, the free population strongly agitated for the abolition of the penal establishment, but to no purpose for many years, because the Government long considered theirs the earlier right, as they were first in possession. In 1851 the colonies had so progressed that there were nearly 300,000 white inhabitants. At that period gold was first discovered and obtained in immense quantities. This caused an impulsive movement, which rapidly raised the population until it now numbers 2,500,000. Previous to 1840 but little was known of the interior. Since then, however, many have thrown light on this portion by their journeys. One of the earlier pioneers was Sturt, who in 1844 tried to cross the continent from south to north, but failed when midway. The results of the chief expeditions may be thus summarized :-

1844: Sturt and Stuart explored the continent from the south to within 200 miles of the centre.

1847: Kennedy explored the whole of the country known as the York peninsula. 1856: Gregory explored the district in the neighbourhood of the Victoria River.

1858: Stuart explored the interior of South Australia.

1860-1: Stuart made attempts to cross the continent from north to south. Burke and Willis crossed from Port Philip to Carpentaria.

1862: Stuart and McKinlay succeeded in crossing the continent.

1873: Warburton crossed West Australia from east to west; and Gosse explored Central Australia

1874: Forrest crossed West Australia south of Warburton's journey; and Giles (1875) crossed still further south.

### NEW SOUTH WALES.

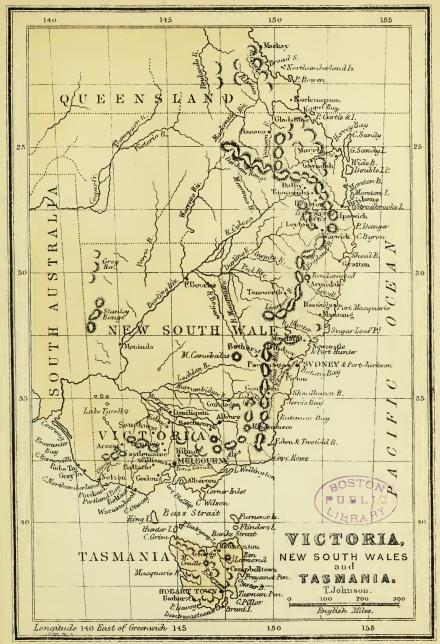
Situation.—This colony occupies the eastern coast of Australia between the parallels of 23°8′ and 37°35′ south latitude, stretching westward as far as the meridian of 141° east lengitude. Northward its boundary is for the greater portion 29° south latitude, and southward it is formed chiefly by the River Murray. The entire area is estimated at 311,000 square miles, the greatest length being 750 miles, and the greatest breadth 700 miles.

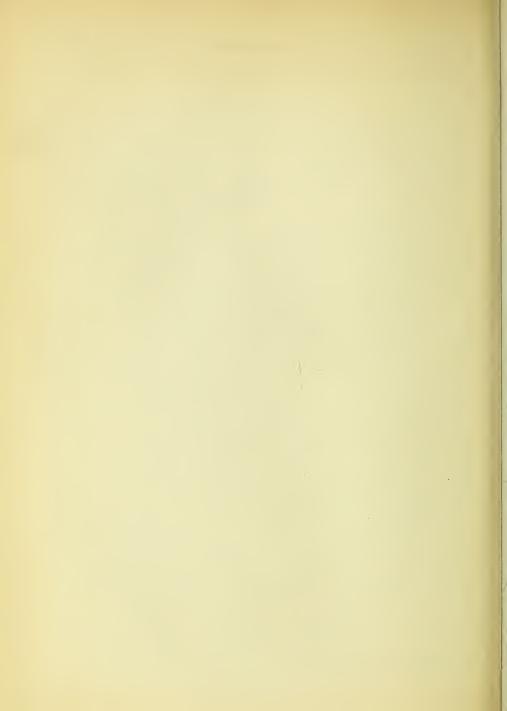
Natural Features.—The coast is but little less than 900 miles in length, and throughout contains many beautiful harbours. Of these the finest is Port Jackson, frequently called the "most magnificent harbour in the whole world." The entrance is more than a mile in width, and the water so deep that the largest vessels can anchor close to the wharves at which they are to be unloaded. Botany Bay, a little further south, is another famed harbour, being that explored by Captain Cook in 1775.

Naturally the colony is divided into the coast district, the table-lands, and the plains of the interior. The former is a portion of the plain that extends throughout the eastern coast, and is well watered by numerous streams, possessing fair fertility. The table lands are chiefly comprised of a portion of the great eastern range locally known as the Australian Alps, Blue Mountains, Liverpool Range, and the New England Range. Mount Kosciusko, the highest summit yet found in Australia, is within New South Wales. The interior slopes gradually from these hills, and the country is frequently for many miles almost perfectly level. The average height of the table lands is about 2,800 feet, the fall towards the sea being sudden.

The sources of most of the rivers are in the table lands. Those flowing eastward are of necessity short and rapid, and consequently unfit for navigation. The most important of these are Richmond, Clarence, McLeay, Manning, Hunter, Hawkesbury, and Shoalhaven. The rivers flowing westward form part of the Murray basin. In some cases the plains are so level that the water remains stagnant in the beds of the rivers. The chief tributaries of the Murray are Darling (Warrego, Gulgoa, Peel, Castlereagh, Macquarie, Bogan), and Lachlan, (Murrumbidgee, Wagga Wagga). Unlike the rivers in other countries, the rivers of Australia get smaller towards their mouths, the cause being that the absorption is greater than the ordinary supply. Some rivers are gradually lost in this way, or end in a small tract of swampy country. The Macquarie River is an example of this kind of stream. It is a large river 150 miles from its source, but by the absorption gradually diminishes in size, and finally entirely disappears, when about 30 miles from the Darling river, during the greater part of the year.

Climate.—The air is very healthy, pulmonary complaints and fevers being almost unknown. The occupation of the doctor is chiefly confined to cases of an accidental nature. The greatest drawback is the periodical droughts which occur at intervals of about twelve years, greatly damaging the pastures of which the larger portion of the colony is comprised. The average annual temperature is about 12 higher than that of England, the summer mean being 74° and the winter 55°. Frost and snow are unusual on the





plains, but snow is frequently seen on the higher summits of the hills, no peak, however, being sufficiently elevated to be above the line of perpetual snow. The average annual rain-fall is considerably greater than that of England, being about 54 inches.

Productions.—Like most of the Australian colonies, New South Wales is abundantly supplied with valuable minerals. The most important are gold, silver, lead, coal, copper, iron, and tin. Gold is found in the hilly districts, but the quality is inferior to that of the neighbouring colony of Victoria. Coal is abundantly worked in the coast districts. Newcastle and Maitland are towns in the midst of coal districts.

The vegetation is scanty, the chief part of the colony consisting of plains covered

with coarse herbage.

No animals are peculiar to this portion of Australia, but it possesses all those found elsewhere, although the larger animals are becoming exterminated, especially the diago, against which the colonists wage perpetual war.

Inhabitants.—The population in 1810 only amounted to 8,000. The growth of the colony was rapid. In 1841 there were 130,000, and in 1878 it was estimated that the people numbered 662,212. The great majority are emigrants from the British Islands, or their descendants; the Irish and Scotch having the larger proportions. Other European nations are represented, but to a very limited extent.

The majority of the inhabitants are stock-keepers, or men engaged in rearing stock. Large tracts are occupied as grazing grounds, and immense numbers of sheep and cattle are reared. It is estimated that New South Wales alone has more than 20,900,000

sheep, the wool, hides, and tallow forming the chief articles of export.

Agriculture is becoming more extensively practised, although the colony is not so well adapted for that purpose as for grazing. No grains were indigenous, but they have been successfully introduced, and fine crops of wheat, barley, and oats are obtained with but little care. The ordinary roots, such as potato and turnip, are also cultivated, while the vine, cotton, arrowroot, tobacco, sugar, indigo, and tea plants are remarkably successful. The vine seems likely to become a future source of great wealth, as it is extensively cultivated, the export of wine in 1877 being more than 700,000 gallons; while the cotton, grown on the sea slopes of the hills, is said to be of a very superior quality.

Mining is an important source of labour. The first gold found in Australia was discovered at Bathurst in 1851. Coal, however, is the most valuable mineral, being raised

in large quantities for exportation.

Commerce.—The manufactures being in a primitive condition, and the agriculture defective, the chief articles imported consists of manufactured goods, such as woollen and cotton goods, hardware, furniture, glass, books, beer, ale, wheat, flour, tea, and sugar; their value in 1877 being no less than £14,606,594. The exports were nearly equal in value, amounting to £13,125,819, comprised of fruit, cattle, hides, wool, tallow,

cotton, tobacco, gold, silver, copper, and coal.

The internal communication is defective owing chiefly to the want of navigable rivers. Roads are, however, constructed as well as the means of the settlers permit, and several good roads already cross the colony. Railways have been introduced, and there are now 600 miles of line completed, while considerably more are in construction. The chief portions of these railways are those connecting Bathurst and Sydney, Goulburn and Sydney, and Newcastle with the coal district in its immediate vicinity. The chief seaports are Sydney, Newcastle, Paramatta, and Port Macquarie.

Divisions and Towns.—The explored portions are arranged into districts, of which the chief are Murrumbidgee, Lachlan, Wellington, Gwdir, Warrego, Darling, and Albert, but they are better known when divided into the coast, northern, western, and

southern districts.

Sydney, on Port Jackson (population 174,000), is the capital and largest city in the colony. It was the scene of the first English settlement in 1788. It is well built, has long and broad streets, with magnificent public buildings, and possesses an university and a mint.

Newcastle is in the midst of a large coal district, of which article it exports a large

quantity to neighbouring colonies.

Maitland is another town situated in the centre of a coalfield.

Bathurst, in the interior, and Paramatta, are important towns; while Port Macquarie, Grafton, Eden, Goulburn, Tamworth, Armadale, Manning, Hastings, Windsor, and Gundagai are growing in importance.

Government.—The government is that known as "responsible." The Governor, who is appointed by the Crown, is at the head of affairs. He nominates an Executive Council of eight members to assist him in the conduct of affairs, while for purposes of legislation two councils are elected—the Legislative Council, consisting of 40 members, and the Legislative Assembly, composed of 73 members.

The revenue is large, and demonstrates the great wealth of the colony, its amount in 1877 being more than £5,700,000. The expenditure was much less, amounting to £4,627,979. On the 31st of December, 1877, the colony had contracted a debt of

£11,724,419, the money being spent in internal improvements.

Education is receiving great attention from the Government, the schools being largely supported by it. Considering the peculiar character of the early population, and the mode of life which the settlers followed till recently, this is not only most remarkable, but reflects great credit on the authorities, who have so vigorously and successfully dealt with the question. The attendance of children is compulsory.

History.—Captain Cook first explored the country in the neighbourhood of Botany in 1776, and was so favourably impressed with the district that on his return to England his representations induced the Government to fix on Botany Bay as the scene of a penal settlement. Accordingly Captain A. Phillips, with six transports, reached that place in 1788, but, not liking the district around Botany Bay, fixed on Port Jackson as the scene of his settlement. This became the town of Sydney, now one of the largest and most important cities in Australia. Colonists were attracted by the success of the convicts, and after some years began to agitate for the removal of the penal settlement. This was, however, not granted until 1868. Gold was discovered in 1851 at Bathurst, and almost immediately the "gold fever" drew thousands into the colony. The great success of the colony is due, however, to its magnificent pasture grounds, which supplied occupation when gold was not to be obtained.

# QUEENSLAND.

Situation, &c.—Queensland, the youngest of the Australian colonies, lies north of New South Wales, possessing the whole of the eastern coast north of Port Danger, and stretching westward to the meridian of 138° east longitude in the northern and central portions, and to 141° in the southern portion, its southern boundary being chiefly formed by the parallels of 29° south latitude. To the east lies the Pacific Ocean; northward, the Gulf of Carpentaria; and westward, the northern portion of South Australia. The greatest length, measured from the parallel of 29° south to Cape York, is 1,270 miles; whilst the breadth, from Sandy Island to 138° east longitude, is 950 miles. The area is not less than 670,000 square miles.

Natural Features.—The coast line is very extensive, measuring not less than 2,300 miles, exclusive of the small inlets, which are found in large numbers, and which provide good shelter for vessels at all periods of the year. The finest of these harbours are Moreton Bay (sheltered from the Pacific by Moreton and Stradbroke Islands), Keppel Bay, and Port Denison; but Layuna Bay, Hervey Bay, Port Curtis, Repulse Bay, Halifax Bay, Trinity Bay, and Princess Charlotte Bay, are well adapted to be the sites of towns when the population sufficiently increases. One of the greatest natural features is the Great Barrier Reef already described on page 110.

The islands off the coasts are numerous, the principal in the order of their occurrence being Stradbroke Island, Moreton Island, Sandy Island, Curtis Island, Keppel Island, Northumberland Island, Cumberland Island, Palm Island, Hinchinbrook Island, and Lizard Island. They are unimportant in consequence of the population being

inadequate to the wants of the mainland, and are almost neglected.

As in New South Wales, the surface consists of a coast district, succeeded westward by high hills, forming an elevated tablelant, which slopes gradually towards the interior, and consists of vast plains. The hills form a portion of the great eastern range, their average height being about 2,500 feet. A branch running some distance into the interior is called Denham Range, but the main range is generally called the Great Dividing Range. Northward this range gradually approaches the sea, until it comes into close proximity with it. The breadth of the tableland formed by these hills is frequently over 200 miles, forming extensive downs, known as Darling Downs, Fitzroy Downs, and Bowen Downs. The vast plains of the interior are occasionally crossed by small ranges of low hills, of which

the chief are Johnson Range and McKinlay Range.

The slope of the country is in three directions—(a) towards the Pacific; (b) towards the Gulf of Carpentaria; (c) towards Lake Eyre, in the interior. The former is very steep, and the rivers are consequently rapid and unfit for navigation. The best known are Brisbane, Mary, Burnett, Boyne, Fitzroy (tributaries, Dawson, Minosa, and Mackenzie), Burdekin (tributaries, Kangaroo, and Cape) and Kennedy Rivers. The largest of these is the Fitzroy, its length from its remotest sources being more than 500 miles. The rivers of the second slope have not been fully explored, but they are believed to be entirely unfit for navigation. They present in most cases the peculiar feature of becoming less in volume the further they are from their sources, in consequence of the arid soil through which they pass. The chief of these rivers are Mitchell, Norman, Flinders, Gregory, Albert, and Nicholson. The rivers of the third slope are even more peculiar. In several cases they evaporate and gradually disappear, or are lost in marshy tracts. The principal rivers flowing into the interior are Cooper's Creek (entering Cape Gregory and supposed to be the continuation of the Thomson River), Victoria River, the Paroo River (which is lost in the interior), and the Warrego River, together with an immense number of other tributaries to the Darling. In addition to these, travellers have recently discovered the upper courses of almost innumerable streams, of which but little is known. These discoveries have, however, shown Queensland to be, on the whole, a well-watered tract, certainly far superior in that respect to the other great colonies of Australia.

Climate.—Queensland has a much higher temperature than its neighbouring colonies, owing to at least one-half of its area being within the tropics. In the districts around the north and north-eastern coasts the climate is strictly tropical, the seasons being ruled by the wet and dry monsoons. The South-east monsoon blows from March to October. The atmosphere throughout the colony is healthy, except perhaps on the low plains in the vicinity of the northern coast. The heat is moderated on the coasts by the sea breezes, and in the interior by the elevation of large portions of the country. The average annual temperature at Brisbane is 70°, whilst in the Northern extremity of the York peninsula it is about 78°. The average rainfall throughout is estimated at about 50 inches, but this is uncertain, as very incomplete knowledge of the rainfall in the interior has been obtained.

**Productions**.—The minerals are very valuable, and would themselves prove a great source of wealth to the colony if proper attention was bestowed on them. Gold is found in various places, whilst coal, iron, copper, quicksilver, and tin are found in very large

quantities.

Unlike the other colonies, Queensland possesses some magnificent timber trees, the chief of which are the Moreton Bay pine, the dammara robusta, and the cedar, all of which form important items of export. Along the northern coasts are found several varieties of palms and other trees whose native homes are in the neighbouring islands of Malaysia. The vast plains of the interior, instead of being the wild arid waste originally supposed, have now been shown to be covered with fine pasture, and they are moderately watered.

In addition to the usual animals, the alligator is found on the rivers near the northern coast.

Inhabitants.—The population is only 195,000, or one to every 3½ square miles, and of these about 76,000 are females. They are almost entirely comprised of emigrants from the British Islands, or their descendants.

The great occupation is stock-keeping. By far the greater portion are engaged in this pursuit, and it is estimated that nearly 261,000 square miles is occupied by the runs of sheep and cattle. The returns of 1877 show that in Queensland there were more than

7,500,000 sheep, 2,079,000 cattle, 133,600 horses, and 53,400 pigs. Until recently the carcases of the sheep were of little value save for boiling down for tallow and their skins, but now a large trade is carried on in preserved meat, by which the carcase is conveyed, after undergoing certain processes, to any part of the world, in a condition fit for human food.

Agriculture is also extensively practised, wheat, cotton, tobacco, sugar. arrowroot, indigo, and spices being successfully grown. The cotton exhibited at the Philadelphia Exhibition was considered to be superior in quality to that produced in any other part of the world.

Mining is also an important industry, and if necessary is capable of almost indefinite increase. The quantity of *gold* is comparatively small, the principal districts being at Capefields, Dalby, and Warwick. *Coal* and *iron* of a superior kind is obtained.

Commerce.—The foreign trade of the colony is already very large in proportion to the number of its inhabitants, and is of growing importance. The absence of manufactures necessitates the import of those goods, together with articles of luxury not yet produced in Queensland. The exports are composed of wool, tallow, hides, preserved meats, timber, cotton, gold, copper, and tin. The value of the imports from the British Islands in 1877 was £1,168,921, the exports amounting to £976,840. The proportion of the British to the whole of the foreign trade is about two-fifths.

The roads in the coast district are fairly good, but the great plains of the interior are rarely crossed by man, and the only roads are the tracks of the settler. Railroads have been introduced, and the colonists are still engaged in their construction. The chief lines at present are those joining (1) Brisbane to the Dalby gold fields, branching to the gold fields at Warwick, and (2) Rockhampton to Gainsford.

Divisions and Towns.—The principal districts are Moreto, Burnett, Wide Bay, Port Curtis, Kennedy, Cook, Burke, Gregory, Mitchell, Warrego, Leichardt, and Maringa, their names being chiefly obtained from travellers who have explored those regions.

Brisbane, on Moreton Bay, (population 27,000), is the capital. It has a fine situation, and is a place of considerable trade. Rockhampton, further north, is the second seaport town, and is rapidly growing in importance. Ipswich, Nebo, Cardwell, Marlborough, Gladstone, Maryborough, Dalby, Borthwick, and Warwick are other towns in the coast district, whilst Roma, Chareville, Blackall, and Bulalie are in the interior. All the towns of importance are on the eastern side of the great tableland.

Government.—The administration is conducted by a Governor appointed by the Crown, assisted by two Houses, one a Legislative Council, the members of which are either appointed by the Crown or elected, and a Legislative Assembly, the whole of the members of which are elected by the colonists. The revenue is proportionally large, amounting in 1876 to £1,203,263, or more than £6 per head on the population. The expenditure during the same year was £1,283,519. The colony had incurred at the end of 1876 a public debt of £7,700,000, the money being chiefly spent in public works.

The education of the children is well provided for, the schools being directly under Government control. Attendance is compulsory, very severe fines being inflicted on those who do not comply with orders of attendance.

History.—The coast of Queensland was investigated in 1770 by Captain Cook, and some years later by Flinders, but in neither case was any attempt made of establishing a colony.

In 1839 the Governor of New South Wales founded a settlement in Moreton Bay, which has since become the town of Brisbane. Until 1859 it formed a district of New South Wales, but in that year was erected into a separate colony with the name of Queensland. Since that period many travellers have visited the interior and discovered it to be throughout admirably fitted for pasturage. The various settlements have followed the same lines as the discoveries. With an increasing population, and rich sources of natural wealth, the future of Queensland will be probably a brilliant one.

### VICTORIA.

Situation.-Victoria occupies the eastern part of the south coast of Australia, between the meridians of 141° and 150° east longitude. Its western boundary is formed by the former meridian, and its northern by the River Murray. To the south lies the Southern Ocean, westward the colony of South Australia, and northward that of New South Wales. The greatest length measured from Discovery Bay to Cape Howe is 490 miles, and the greatest breadth 290 miles. Towards the eastern portion it tapers until its width is very little. The area is 89,000 square miles.

Natural Features.—The extent of coast line is not less than 700 miles, and it includes a great number of small natural harbours, besides one of immense size, called Port Phillip. The principal smaller harbours are Corner Inlet, Port Western, Portland Bay, and The surface is more diversified than any other of the colonies—hills and plains alternating through the greater portion of the country. The hills are the southern portion of the Great Dividing Range, and are known near the north-eastern frontier as the Several peaks in this portion exceed 5,000 feet in height. highest and best known is Mount Hotham. Westward, branches run towards the interior. The two most important of these are called the Grampians and the Pyrenees. The rivers belong to two slopes, viz., the coast and the river Murray. They are of moderate length and of fair size, although none of them can be designated as great rivers. The chief are Snowy, Mitchell, Tambo, Avon, McAlister, Aberfeldy, Latrobe, Yarra Yarra, Caranbolac, Barwon, Hopkins, and Glenelg rivers flowing into the sea; the Leddon, Campaspe, Goulburn, Ovens and Mitta Mitta joining the Murray, and the Avoca and the Winnen, which become lost in marshy tracts in the interior.

The lakes are numerous but of small size, the largest being Tyrrell Lake and Hind-

marsh Lake.

The north-west of the colony consists of an extensive waste known as the Bullarook Desert, bounded northward by the Murray River, and succeeded southward by the grassy plains of the Wimmera district.

Climate.—The climate of Victoria is more congenial to Europeans than either of the neighbouring colonies. The average temperature for the year is about 57°, and it is estimated that the average summer heat is but little in excess of that in the south of England. The interior is liable to sudden changes from heat to cold or the reverse, and the summer heat is not unfrequently intensified by the hot breezes that blow from the broad plains of the interior. The average annual rainfall is 30 inches. Long periods of drought are excedingly rare.

**Productions.**—Since the first discovery of gold in Australia it has been found in large quantities throughout the central and eastern portions of the interior of Victoria. Between 1851 and the end of 1877, the gold exported from Victoria, valued at £4 per ounce, has amounted to £190,000,000. Coal is found in the south-west, and iron, tin, and antimony are worked, but only to a very limited extent. Admirable pasturage is found in most parts of the colony, and considerable portions are covered by forests of eucalypti and other trees.

Inhabitants.—Victoria is the most thickly populated of the Australian colonies both proportionally and actually, their numbers in 1878 being estimated at 868,000. Of

these nearly 80,000 are Chinese, but the great majority are of British descent.

Gold provides the chief industry, and is the cause of the rapid growth of the colony. The average export of this mineral is more than £10,000,000 annually. Coal and other minerals are worked, but the total value of those raised since 1851 is estimated not to exceed £600,000.

Sheep-farming is extensively practised, the number of sheep in the colony amounting to more than 10,000,000. The amount of wool annually exported exceeds 74,000,000lbs.

Agriculture, for many years neglected, is reviving. The chief cereals grown are wheat and oats. The vine is successfully cultivated. The richest agricultural districts are those around Port Philip and Portland Bay.

Commerce.—The annual value of the exports and imports is extraordinarily large, the former in 1878 amounting to £17,022,065, while the imports were £16,362,304 in value. The chief articles exported are gold, wool, tallow, hides, skins, preserved meat, and wine. The articles imported are chiefly manufactured goods, sugar, tea, wheat, rice, flour,

butter, ale, timber, and spirits.

The means of internal communication are more perfect than in the adjacent colonies. The Government have already (1878) opened 933 miles of railway, and 193 more are being constructed, while 17 miles have been laid down by private companies. Stage coaches connect most of the largest towns, and there are 206 stations of the electric telegraph, of which 2,885 miles are opened.

Divisions and Towns.—The whole colony is divided into six districts—Gippsland, Port Phillip, Portland, Wimmera, Loddon, and Murray. Nearly all the land is also now laid out in counties.

Melbourne, on Port Phillip, is the capital (population 250,000). It is the largest seaport in Australia, and possesses a mint, museum, university, public gardens, and an

observatory.

Geelong, at the head of Port Phillip, is the second port. Others of less importance are Portland, Belfast, Alberton, and Gifford. There are also several towns in the interior, the majority having been founded in the neighbourhood of gold fields. The chief of these are Ballarat, Castlemaine, Darlington, Williamstown, Sandhurst, and Kilmore.

Government and History.—The Government is vested in a Governor, who receives his appointment from the Crown, and an Executive Council of 9 members, together with two Houses of Parliament, a Legislative Council of 30 members, elected by the six districts, and a Legislative Assembly of 206 members, who are elected by the inhabitants of the 55 smaller districts or counties.

The revenue in 1877-8 amounted to £4,723,877, and the expenditure was £4,358,096. The public debt at the same time was £17,022,065, which was spent in the construction of railways and other public works. The revenue was formerly raised chiefly by the sale of land, but is now principally derived from excise duties and the receipts of the railways.

The colony was first established as a district of New South Wales, but was erected into an independent government in 1850. In 1851 the population was about 77,000, but the gold fever soon raised it rapidly until it has become eleven times as great, and New South Wales is still the most popular of the Australian colonies. Even should the supply of gold cease, it has ample resources for a much larger population.

### SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

Situation.—The title of this country (South Australia) is really a misnomer, as it occupies the northern as well as the southern portion of Central Australia. Its western side terminates at the meridian of 129° east longitude throughout the continent, and the eastern at 138° as far south as the parallel of 26°. South of this the colony stretches eastward to the meridian of 141° east. It is bounded on the north by the Iudian Ocean; east by Queensland, New South Wales, and Victoria; south by the Southern Ocean; and west by West Australia. The greatest length, from Cape Catastrophe to the north of Arnhemland, is 1,600 miles. The area of the colony is about 904,000 square miles.

Natural Features.—The extent of coast line is small, being less than 2,700 miles in length, or only one mile of coast to 450 square miles of area. More than 250 miles of the eastern portion of the south coast consist of high cliffs. The coast, however, contains a few natural harbours, the most important being Port Eliot, Gulf St. Vincent, Spencer Gulf, Anxious Bay, and Streaky Bay in the south; and Queens Channel, Anson Bay, Port Darwin, Van Diemen Gulf, and Melville Bay on the north. The principal promoutories are Cape Adieu, Cape Radstock, Cape Catastrophe, and Cape Spencer on the south, with Cape Hay, Point Patterson, and De Courcy Head on the north. Off the southern coast are the islands of Kingscote, Investigator, and Nuyts Archipelago; and off the north those of Bathurst, Melville, Wessel, Bickerton, and Groote Eylandt.

A series of mountainous heights extends throughout the colony from south to north. The southern portion is known as Barkers Range, its situation being immediately east of Spencer Gulf. Northward its continuation is known as Flinders Range. The average height of these hills is about 2,000 feet. Several attain the height of 3,000 feet, the best known being the Kooringa and Serle Mountains. North-west of Lake Torrens is a range known as Stuart Range, succeeded northward by the Denison, Musgrave, McDonnel, Reynold, McDouall, Ashburton, and Ellesmere Ranges. The whole of these are of comparatively little elevation.

The rivers are neither numerous nor important. The lower course of the Murray flows through the south-east, and is the only navigable river in the south. In the north, the Victoria, Daly, Adelaide, Alligator, Roper, Red Kangaroo, McArthur, and Van Alphen Rivers enter the sea, but they are not known to possess any commercial value. Recent travels have discovered many rivers in the interior, generally flowing towards the lakes. The chief of these are Duffield River, Truer River, Coopers Creek, and Frome River. The

upper courses of the two former rivers have not been explored.

The lakes are numerous but of little value. Lake Gairdner, Lake Hart, Denia Lake, Lake Younghusband, Lake Torrens, Lake Frome, Lake Blanche, Lake Eyre, Amadeus Lake, and Wood Lake are the largest. Their depth is little.

Climate.—The northern portion partakes of the same characteristics as North Queensland, being much hotter than the southern portion, and subjected to the monsoons. The southern resembles closely the climate of the South of Europe, the annual temperature being about 65° Fahrenheit. The rain falls chiefly during the winter months (May to September), the annual fall averaging 21 inches. As a rule the atmosphere is dry and healthy. The interior is liable to periods of drought, very disastrous to the cattle and the vegetation.

Productions.—The mineral wealth of South Australia is very great, although it does not possess gold, which has caused the neighbouring colonies to prosper so rapidly. Inexhaustible stores of copper, however, exist east of Spencer Bay, while lead, iron, manganese, tin, antimony, titanum, quicksilver, beryl, and tourmaline are found in considerable quantities.

South Australia possesses no peculiarities of vegetable or animal life. The hills are clothed to the summits with the *eucalyptus*, and the plains generally covered with thick

grass, although large barren tracts are occasionally found in the interior.

Inhabitants.—The population is about 226,000. These are chiefly engaged in stock-keeping or agriculture. The vine, olive, and orange are grown with great success, while large quantities of wheat are annually exported. Mining is also an important industry, the copper mines at Burra-Burra, Wallaroo, and Moonta being amongst the largest in the world.

It was estimated that the land under cultivation in 1876 exceeded 1,500,000 acres,

while more than 85,000,000 were leased for grazing purposes.

Commerce.—This is of growing importance, and already is of considerable magnitude. The imports are chiefly manufactured goods, tea, sugar, ale, wine, timber, coal, and bags; whilst the imports comprise wheat, flour, wool, copper, skins, and other produce.

Railways are rapidly progressing, and 291 miles have already been opened for traffic; 438 additional miles are in course of construction, while 238 miles more have been

proposed.

The electric telegraph crosses the colony from north to south. There are altogether more than 4,060 miles of wire laid down, and telegraphic communication is established with Europe.

Towns.—The capital and chief port is Adelaide (85,000), on Spencer Gulf; other towns of less importance are Stanley, Melrose, Port Augusta, and Palmerston.

Government and History.—The administration is conducted by a Governor and an Executive Council of six members. For purposes of legislation there are two Houses, the Council and the Assembly. The former is elected by the inhabitants collectively, and the latter in districts. The revenue in 1876 was £1,320,204, and the expenditure £1,323,337, the public debt amounting to £3,837,100.

The colony was first established in 1836 by colonists from the British Islands, and has ever since flourished, although its growth has not been so rapid as that of its neighbours. In 1863 it was enacted that the colony should include the territory previously known as North Australia.

Within the last few years the Victoria River has been investigated with the view of

establishing a settlement, but this has not yet been founded.

The whole constitution of the colony was remodelled in 1856, when it received its present form.

## WEST AUSTRALIA.

Situation.—West Australia occupies the whole of the continent west of the meridian of 129° east longitude, its most westerly point being in longitude 113° east. North, west, and south it is bounded by the Indian Ocean, and on the east by the colony of South Australia. Its greatest length is about 1,600 miles, and its greatest breadth 1,100 miles. Its area is about 976,000 square miles.

Natural Features.—The coast line is more than 3,000 miles in length, but it is very regular in shape, possessing few large inlets or prominent headlands. The whole coast closely resembles in this particular that of South Africa. There are comparatively few harbours—King George Sound, on the south; Geographe Bay, Peel Inlet, and Gontheaume Bay on the east; and King Sound, Brunswick Bay, Admiralty Gulf, and Cambridge Gulf, on the north-east, being the chief. Cape Leveque, North-West Cape, Cape Naturaliste, and Cape Leuwin are the principal promontories.

The mountains are chiefly near the coast, and are of little height. Darling Range, with Mount William, 3,600 feet, is the highest group, and the hills gradually decrease in elevation as they approach northward. The ranges north of the Darling Range are known as Herschel Range, Victoria Range, Murchison Mountains, Kennedy Range, Barlee Range, Hammersley Range. A few detached groups are also found in the interior,

the Alfred and Marie Range being the most important.

The remainder of the country is one huge plain. The southern part is desert, but northward is a rich grassy country, intermingled with many large tracts well suited for

agricultural purposes.

The rivers are numerous. The chief are Blackwood River, Peel River, Swan River, Murchison River, Gascoyne River, Ashburton River, Fortescue River, De Grey River, and Sterling Creek. The Swan River is the only one navigable, and all are nearly dried up during the hot seasons. Large bodies of water, though of little depth, are found in the south, the chief being Lake Austin, Lake Moore, Lake Barlee, and Lake Cary; but in addition to these there are a great many smaller ones. Most of the lakes are salt.

Climate.—The climate does not vary in any great degree from that of the rest of Australia. The average heat in the central portions of the inhabited part is about 60°. The summer heat is occasionally as great as 105°. The heat is modified by the land and sea breezes in the coast districts, but it is also subjected to elevation from a hot wind blowing from the interior, somewhat similar to the simoom of the Sahara. The annual rainfall averages about 32 inches. The climate is generally regarded as very salubrious.

Productions.—The mineral wealth is apparently very great, although knowledge regarding it is as yet inadequate to supply reliable information. Copper of a rich quality, lead, coal, and magnetic iron are found in large quantities, and worked to a considerable extent. The vegetation is occasionally rich, large quantities of sandal-wood and jarrah being found. Nearly two-fifths of the country is covered with rich grasses, and at least

another fifth is desert.

Inhabitants.—These numbered in 1876, 27,321. The settlements are almost exclusively in the south-west, the chief occupation being agriculture, for which the plains along the coast, and the district immediately east of the Darling Range, are well suited. Stock-rearing is also extensively pursued. The chief objects of cultivation are wheat, barley, vine, olive, and fig, and, in less quantities, nearly all the vegetables of Europe.

Commerce.—Imports: Sugar, tea, tobacco, spirits, beer, soap, ironmongery, and the various articles of clothing. Exports: Wool, lead, copper, jarrah, whale oil, guano, pearls, sandal wood, sheep, bullocks, and potatoes. The value of the former in 1877 was £362,706, and of the latter £373,351.

The means of communication in the settled portion are fairly good, and annually improving. About 80 miles of railway have already been opened, and more are in process

of construction.

The interior is a comparatively unknown land, and has only been completely crossed three times—by Gregory (in the north) in 1856; Forrest (in the centre) in 1874; and Giles (in the south) in 1875.

Towns.—The capital and only town of importance is *Perth* (population 7,000), on the Swan River; a neat, regularly built town. Other settlements have been formed at *York*, *Bannister*, *Williamsburgh*, *Windham*, and *Albany*.

Government and History.—The administration of West Australia is dissimilar to that of the other Australian colonies. The Governor is at the head of affairs, and is assisted by an Executive Council of five members, all of whom are appointed by the Crown. For purposes of legislation there is a House of Assembly of twenty-one members. Of these seven are nominated by the Crown, and the remainder elected by the inhabitants. The revenue in 1877 amounted to £165,412, and the expenditure £182,159. The public debt,

at the close of the same year, was £161,000.

The colony of West Australia was first established by emigrants from the British Islands in 1829, and was at first known as the Swan River settlement. It was a convict establishment from its commencement, and was for many years thought unfit for any other purposes. In 1868 the practice of transportation was discontinued, and the colony has since grown in favour. The explorations of Gregory and Forrest have shown that the interior is not altogether unfit for habitation, whilst great mineral wealth has been discovered in the coast districts.

### TASMANIA.

Situation.—Tasmania is a large heart-shaped island lying about 220 miles south of the colony of Victoria, from which it is separated by Bass Strait. The island lies between the parallels of 39° 35' and 43° 41' south latitude and the meridians of 143° 48' and 148° 30' east longitude. The most northerly cape is Cape Grim, the most southerly, South Cape. West Point is the most westerly cape, and St. Helena the furthest east.

Extent.—The area of the whole island is not less than 26,215 square miles, or 16,788,000 acres. The length measured from Port Sortell in the north to South Cape in the south is about 180 miles, whilst the breadth between West Point and St. Helena Point is 195 miles, and between South-west Cape and Entrecasteaux Channel about 50 miles.

Coast.—The character of the coast varies considerably. In some portions the shores are low and sandy, but generally they are rocky, rising almost precipitously from the sea. Although there are few large inlets, there are numerous small bays. Of these the great majority are good natural harbours, capable of holding a large number of vessels of heavy tonnage. In some the largest vessels are able to unload at the wharves, the depth of the water being great. Port Dalrymple and Ringarooma Bay on the north, Oyster Bay on the east, Storm Bay on the south, and Port Davey and Macquarie Harbour on the west, are the most important bays, but the estuaries of the larger rivers are equally valuable as harbours. The capes are Cape Grim and Cape Portland on the north, St. Helena Point on the east, South Cape and South-West Cape on the south, and Sandy Cape and West Point on the west.

Off the coasts are a considerable number of islands, of which nearly the whole are leased by settlers for agricultural or pastoral purposes. The largest are Flinders Island (area 600 square miles), Barren Islands (area 200 square miles), Clark Island, Bruni Island (area 300 square miles), Hunters Islands, Robins Islands, and Hummock Islands.

The strait between Clark Island and the mainland is called Banks Strait. The island of Bruni is separated from Tasmania by a narrow passage called the Entrecasteaux Channel.

On the south-east is a very peculiarly shaped peninsula, the *Tasman Peninsula*. The isthmus connecting it with the mainland is not more than 100 yards wide. Further north is the *Freyanet Peninsula*.

Mountains.—The surface of the interior is very varied in character, hills and valleys, with well-watered plains, alternating at very short intervals. The hills occur throughout the island either detached or in groups, their height giving them a bold and striking appearance, rendered more beautiful by the large gum trees that grow in the forests, generally reaching to their summits. The elevation of these hills averages more than 3,000 feet; many are over 4,000, whilst Ben Lomond, in the north-east, is 3,000 feet high, Cradle Mountain, in the north-west, 3,070 feet, and Wellington Hill, 4,100 feet high, are the highest in the island.

The whole of the central districts may be regarded as an elevated tableland, the height of which is little less than 3,000 feet. This tableland is chiefly bush land or forest.

Rivers.—The water supply is more abundant than on the continent of Australia. The rivers are numerous and of considerable size, although necessarily their length is not great. As a whole the island must be considered as well watered. The central table-land is the great watershed, rivers running in all directions from thence to the coast.

On the South.—The Derwent (the longest river in the island, 130 miles in length), and

the Huon.

On the West.—Gordon River, King River, Penman River, and Arthur River.

On the North.—Forth River, Tamar River (tributary, Esk).

Lakes.—The lakes are small but possessed of great beauty, being generally surrounded on all sides by hills of considerable elevation. The largest is that known as Great Lake, situated about 20 miles west of Ben Lomond.

Climate.—The climate of Tasmania is generally regarded as more suitable for Englishmen than either of the Australian colonies, as the severe heat experienced in the most temperate of those is in Tasmania greatly modified through its position further south, its great elevation and its maritime situation, no portion of it being 70 miles from the sea. Very little difference exists between its climate and that of the south and southwest of England.

The mean annual temperature in the south of the island is about 52°, the summer mean being 63°, and the winter 42°. During winter severe frosts are frequent, and heavy falls of snow sometimes occur, but the snow does not usually remain more than a day on the low grounds. The remainder of the winter is chiefly rainy weather, very similar to the English spring. The spring and autumn are generally warm and the sky clear, but for at least eight months in the year a fire is acceptable at night and in the early morning. In summer the sky is bright and clear, and the weather hot, but very rarely such as to necessitate the suspension of work during the middle of the day, as in Queensland and New South Wales.

The weather is variable and liable to very rapid changes, but this is not shown to be injurious to health, as is usually the case, the colony being one of the healthiest in the world. The early colonists boasted that the only class of individuals that could not succeed in Tasmania were the doctors.

Productions.—The mineral resources of Tasmania were, until recently, generally regarded as slight. It is now shown to possess gold in considerable quantities, although it is but little worked, besides large and valuable supplies of iron ore, coal, lead, rich veins of copper, zinc, manganese, and tin, both as brook tin and in lodes. A considerable portion of the iron is highly magnetic. As yet none of the minerals have received much attention, but capital has recently been attracted in that direction, and it seems probable that the colony will, at a future period, change its character and become a mining instead of an agricultural colony.

The vegetation is closely allied to that of Australia, the most remarkable feature being the size of the trees, whose growth in Australia is checked by the heat and drought. Large forests occur in almost every direction. Their appearance is dreary, owing to their peculiar character, but they provide almost inexhaustible stores of magnificent timber. The principal trees are eucalypti, acacias, mimosas, blue gum, cedar pine, celery pine, stringy bark, rosewood, myrtle, blackwood, and pinkwood. Of these the blue gum is regarded as equal, if not superior to the oak, for purposes of shipbuilding, and can be obtained in large size, over 200 feet in length. The blackwood, pinkwood, rosewood, and muskwood, are admirably adapted for furniture, having close and beautiful grains. Whole forests of muskwood are found in marshy places, and the myrtle tree is frequently found over 40 feet in circumference, in forests covering many miles of the interior.

The animals are three species of kangaroo, opossums, porcupines, duckbill, wild cat, wombat, and bandicoot. The wild cat and opossum commit severe raids on the flocks, while the kangaroo-rat and the bandicoot are very fond of potatoes. Snakes of several

varieties are plentiful.

Inhabitants.—The aborigines were members of the Papuan-Negro race, and of the most degraded kind. Their habits were repugnant to European ideas, their food disgusting, whilst they possessed all the worst features of a savage nation, being irascible and revengeful. At the period of the first settlement they numbered about 3,500, but the colonists found it necessary to carry on an exterminating war, which so reduced their number, that in 1836 there were less than 50 remaining. The last of these died in 1876, the individual being a woman named Truganini.

The white population in 1877 numbered rather more than 107,000. Of these a great number are the descendants of the convicts transported in the earlier days of the colony.

The remainder have emigrated chiefly from the British Isles.

Occupations.—The majority of the inhabitants are engaged in a pastoral or agricultural life. Large districts are frequently occupied by a few settlers as grazing grounds for their cattle and sheep. The productiveness of the sheep is remarkable, and the wool is of a very superior quality. A close examination of the soil would cause it to be represented as not first-rate, and in many cases very poor; notwithstanding this, whatever is tilled is very productive. Wheat, barley, oats, hops, potatoes, and all European fruits and vegetables are successively grown with little aid from cultivation. The wheat is of a good quality, the crop abundant, and the sample heavy. The rapidity of growth of some of the vegetables is extraordinary, and their size not less so.

In 1877 it was estimated that more than 332,560 acres were under cultivation in

wheat, barley, oats, potatoes, or grass.

A large number of ships are annually sent to the important whale fisheries near the coast. These have, from the beginning of the century, been an important item in the industrial work of the colony.

The mining is at present in its infancy. The export of gold amounts to about

£20,000 annually. This branch of industry is increasing in importance.

Commerce, &c.—The exports are chiefly wool, corn, flour, potatoes, timber, and oil; and within recent years gold and copper. The total value of this branch of trade in 1876 was £1,130,983. The imports are manufactured goods, tea, sugar, and other colonial produce, ale, spirits, and ironmongery. Their value in 1876 amounted to £1,133,003.

Several good roads cross the island connecting the principal towns. In addition, there are about 134 miles of railway opened, connecting the towns of Hobart and Launceston. There are 40 telegraph stations, about 510 miles of wire having been laid.

Divisions.—The whole island has been laid out in counties for police and other purposes, many receiving names of some county in "Old England"—Wellington, Devon Dorset, Cornwall, Westmorland, Russel, Montagu, Lincoln, Somerset, and Glamorgan in the northern portion; and Pembroke, Monmouth Cumberland, Franklin, Montgomery, Arthur, Buckingham, and Kent in the south.

Towns.—Hobart Town, on the estuary of the river Derwent, is the capital and chief port. The largest vessels unload at the wharves. The population is about 20,000. Launceston, on the Tamar, has a flourishing trade, and is the second town in importance. Port Arthur was the seat of the convict establishments. Richmond, Outland, Georgetown, Montgomery, and Bathurst are towns possessing considerable local importance.

Government.—The Constitution was settled in 1865, by a local Act which created a Legislative Council and a House of Assembly, to be called "The Parliament." The

former consists of 16 members, all of whom are elected for six years, and the latter of 32 members, elected for five years. The Governor is appointed by the Crown, and assisted by a Cabinet selected from the members of the Parliament. The revenue in 1877 amounted to £361,771; the expenditure was £352,563, whilst the public debt was £1,589,795. Education is carefully attended to by the Government, by whom 165 public schools have been established. Superior education is also supported, competitive examinations deciding on the holders of several scholarships at some British University.

History.—The island was first discovered in 1642, by Tasman, a Dutch voyager, who named it Van Dieman's Land in honour of his patron. Later it was partially explored by Captain Cooke, and in 1803 it was made a penal settlement by the British. The first settlers arrived in 1804, and from that period until 1825 the island formed a portion of the colony of New South Wales, when it was created a separate colony. The transportation of convicts ceased in 1852; and since that time the improvement of the colony, both morally and socially, has been very great.

The success of this colony has not been equal to that of some of those on the mainland, but the progress, if slow, is sure, as for agriculture and grazing it is of greater value, and it is probably equal in minerals. The price of an acre of ground, in a native state, for agricultural purposes, is about £1. The payments for land extend over a period of 14

years.

### NEW ZEALAND.

Situation.—New Zealand consists of a group of one small and two large islands, together with numerous islets, in the South Pacific Ocean, situated about 1,800 miles due east of Tasmania, and more than 1,500 miles from the nearest portion of the continent of Australia. Its most northerly point (North Cape) is in south latitude 34° 23′, the most southerly (Port Pegasus) in 47° 19′ south latitude, the most easterly (East Cape) in longitude 178° 35′ east, and the most westerly (Providence Cape) in longitude 166° 25′ east.

Extent.—The three islands form a broken line lying in a north-easterly direction, and are known as North Island, South Island, and Stewart Island, the latter being the smallest and most southerly.

North Island, measured from Cape Palliser to North Cape, is 520 miles in length and 272 miles in breadth between Cape Egmont and East Cape. Its area is about

44,800 square miles.

South Island in its greatest length measures about 480 miles, whilst its breadth, between Cape Providence and Dunedin Harbour, is 200 miles. The area of this island is about 60,700 square miles.

Stewart Island, the smallest, has a length of 48 miles, and measures in its widest

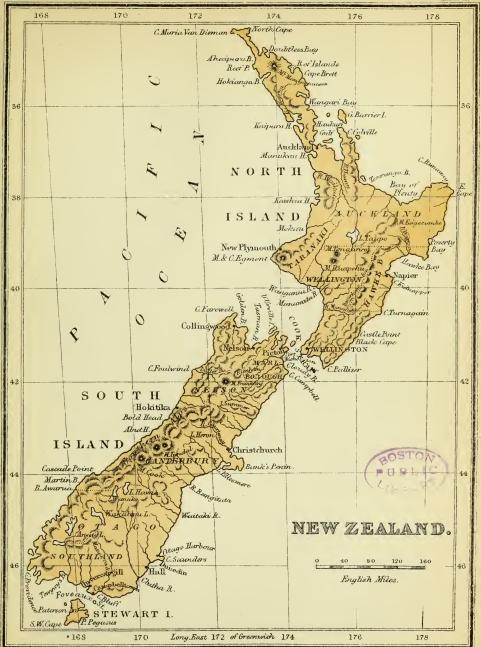
part about 18 miles. Its area is not more than 760 square miles.

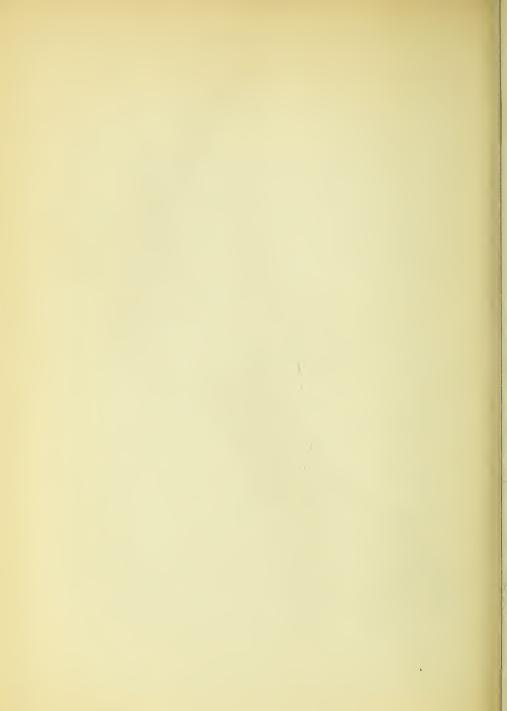
The united area of North, South, and Stewart Islands is thus about 106,260 square miles, containing 68,006,400 square acres, of which more than two-thirds are fit for cultivation.

Coast.—The coast is very much broken and indented, forming many safe natural harbours and bold promontories. There are numerous elongated gulfs opening large portions of the interior, together with a large number of smaller bays rendering sea communication easy, which, being found in every part, are of greater value than occasional fiords in a generally rock-bound coast.

Bays.—North Island: Bay of Plenty, Firth of Thames, Waitermata Harbour, Hanraki Gulf, Wangarei Bay, Bay of Islands, and Doubtless Bay on the north; Ahaipara Bay, Hokianga Gulf, Kaipara Harbour, Manukau Harbour, and Kawhia Harbour on the east; Port Nicholson and Palliser Bay on the south; and Hawke Bay and Poverty Bay on the east.

Manukau Harbour and Waitermata Harbour almost divide the island, approaching within three miles of each other.





South Island.—Queen Charlotte and Pelorus Sounds, Groisilles, Tasman, and Massacre Bays on the north; Jackson Bay, Milford, Bligh, George, Caswell, Charles, and Thomson Sounds, Doubtful Inlet, and Dusky Bay on the east; Chalky and Preservation Inlets, Dewaewea and Tautuku Bays on the south; and Molyneux Bay, Otago Harbour, Moerangi, Pegasus, Avatere, and Cloudy Bays on the east.

Stewart Island —Port Pegasus, Totoes Bay, and Paterson Inlet on the eastern coast.

Capes.—North Island: Capes Runaway, Colville, Tewara, Brett, Wiwiki, and Kara-Kara, and North Cape on the north; Cape Maria, Van Diemen Reef, and Albatross Points, and Cape Egmont on the west; Capes Terawiti and Palliser on the south; and Capes Turnagain and Kidnapper, Table Cape, Gable End Foreland, and East Cape on the east.

South Island.—Porirua Head, Separation Point, Farewell Spit, and Cape Farewell on the north; Cape Foulwind, Cliffy Head, Abut Head, Titihai Point, Cascade Point, West Cape, and Cape Providence on the west; Windsor Point, Sand Hill Point, and Slope Point on the south; Cape Saunders, Long Lookout Point, and Cape Campbell on the east.

Stewart Island.—South-west cape and South Cape on the south; Point Adventure.

in the north-east.

Islands.—A vast number of small islands lie near the shores of New Zealand. The most important of these are Great Barrier, Little Barrier, and Whiheki Island, north of North Island; D'Urville and Alepaw Island, north of South Island; and Resolution Island in Dusky Bay.

Peninsulas.—North-western portion of North Island and the Mahia Peninsula in North Island, with Banks Peninsula in South Island.

Straits.—Cook Strait between North and South Island. In its narrowest part the width is about twelve miles, but the average width is much greater, the strait being in its widest portion more than 100 miles across. Foveaux Strait lies between South Island and Stewart Island. The average width of this strait is about eighteen miles.

Mountains.—The mountains of North Island chiefly consist of a series of ranges, running parallel to the coast, containing many peaks of considerable elevation, the ranges being separated by broad alluvial valleys equal in fertility to the most favoured lands. The highest ranges in order from the south-east are the Maungariki Mountains, Ruahine Range, Kaimauawa Range, continuous with the Te Whaiti Range, and the Coromandel Range. Although these ranges have considerable elevation, they do not include the highest summits in the islands, as these are found in isolated groups scattered throughout the island. The highest peak is Ruapehu, an extinct volcano, whose summit is now almost perpetually covered with snow, having an elevation of 9,000 feet, and situated in the south central portion of the island. Ten miles to the north-west is the volcanic mountain Tongariro, elevation 6,500 feet, which is still occasionally active. The highest mountain not volcanic is Mount Eqmont, 8,300 feet, lying near the coast east of Cape Egmont.

The mountains of South Island consist of a series of coutinuous high chains, occupying nearly the whole of the northern portion and running in every direction, but in the central and south forming one long and high coast range (western), from which run numerous forks containing the highest peaks in New Zealand. The Marine and Looker-on Range are the chief chains in the north, Ben Nevis, Mount Skiddaw, and Mount Gore being well-known peaks. The central coast range is called the Southern Alps. Connected with these, but at right angles to their direction, are the Black Range, Rolleston Range, and Ranged Ranges. The peaks in this portion closely resemble the most striking parts of the European Alps. Summits clothed in perpetual snow, deep ravines, precipitous clifts, high passes, and large numbers of glaciers are found in every direction. Mount Cook, 13,200 feet high, has the greatest elevation, but Keith Johnston Mountain, and Arrowsmith, with many others, have their peaks above the snow line, which in the latitude of Mount Cook is about 7,800 feet high.

Further south the continuation of the coast range is frequently broken by the numerous fiords that penetrate the coasts. Several ranges cross the interior in this part, the Hankshaw Umbrella Range and Knobby Range being the chief. Mount Franklin,

10,000 feet, is the highest peak.

The watershed of the south and central portions is generally near the western coast; in the northern it is in the interior. The surface of Stewart Island is diversified, presenting a rapid succession of hills and fertile valleys.

Rivers.—The water supply of New Zealand is abundant, rivers flowing in every direction, and in several cases these are navigable for a considerable distance inland. Those rising in the Southern Alps are frequently flooded during the melting of the snow and ice, and become impassable from the rapidity of their current. Their banks being low, they cover large tracts of the interior with a shallow bed of water.

The following table shows the situation, source, and approximate length of the

larger rivers :-

ISLAND.	RIVER.	Source.	Length.	Coast.
,			Miles.	
	Waikari	In Lake Waikari		North
	Bangitaiki	Northern portion of Ruahine Range		"
North Island {	Matata	Lake Tarawera		,,
	Thames	Whanga Range	96	,,
	Waiho	East of source of Thames		1)
	Wairoa	Near the Northern Coast		West.
	Waikato	East of Mount Tongariro	200	,,
	Waipa	Near Whareorino		
	Mokau			"
	Wanganui	South of Titiaraupinga	130	29
	Bangitiki	Western side of the Ruahine Range	1	"
	Manawatu	Eastern side of the Ruahine Range		"
	Ruamatunga.	Eastern side of the Tararua Mountains		South
	Plassy	Eastern side of Ruahine Range		East.
	Mohaka	Ruahine Mountains	1	,,
	Wairoa	Southern shores of Lake Waikari	1	22
	Monuipika	Marine Range	80	North
B	Buller	Holwick Lake	70	West.
	Grey	15 miles east of Mount Gore		,,
	Taramakau	20 miles north of Snowy Peak	- 1	,,
	Q1 1	Southern Alps, 30 miles south-west of)	1	,,
	Clarke	Mount Cooke		22
	Waiau	Southern extremity of Te-Anau Lake		South
	Mararoa	-		
i	Jacobs	Takitimo Mountains	- 1	"
	Oreti	20 miles south-west of Lake Wakatipu	1	"
	Makaura		120	"
South Island.	Warinea			"
	Eyre			
	Waikai			
	Clutha	Lake Wakatipu	150	East.
	Taiera	Knobby Mountains	140	
	Waitaka	Lake Ohau	100	"
	Maukerika	Knobby Mountains		"
	Ahuriri	West of Lake Ohau		
	Te-Kapo	Lake Te-Kapo		
	Rangitata	Keith Johnston Mountains		East.
	Ashburton	Palmer Range.		
	Bakaia	Lake Heron.	105	"
	Courtenay	Snowy Peak	90	"
	Broken	Lake Coleridge		,,
	Hurunui	Lake Sumner		"
	Dillon	Mount Una	85	"
	Clarence		100	"
	Wairau	Near Mount Franklin	110	"
	Waipau	Near Mount Franklin	110	"
(	marpau	Troat Troude Flankin		22

Lakes.—Both of the larger islands contain numerous lakes, but the average size of those in the south is larger, and their number is greater. The chief facts regarding these lakes are given below.

Island.	Lake.	SITUATION.	Greatest Length.	Area.
North Island	Wainarapa Taupo Tarawera	Central, west of Kaumauawa Mountains 40 miles north-east of Lake Taupo	Miles. 15 20	Miles 80 220
· South Island.	Rotorua Waikiri Howick Brunner Coleridge	In the north-east	10	30
	Tekapo	Source of the Tekapo River	18	70
	Pukuki Ohau Hawea Wanaka		15	75
	Wakatipu Te-Anau Manipori Manowak Howloko	Southern part of South Island	45 35	180 170

Plains.—There are few extensive plains in either of the islands, the chief level tracts being those lying at the foot of the numerous ranges. A large district in South Island, near the eastern coast, from Banks Peninsula to the Makokihi River, is called the Canterbury Plain, and a still larger one lies around the southern and south-eastern coasts, stretching inland for more than 80 miles. Another large tract in the north-west is known as the Karamea Plain.

Climate.—The insular position of New Zealand gives it one of the most equable climates in the world, whilst its elevated position modifies greatly the heat experienced in South Australia in the same latitudes. Probably it bears a closer resemblance to England than to any other country, the average summer heat being almost exactly the same, although the winter mean is rather higher, more especially in North Island. The low grounds are rarely covered with snow, although the hills and elevated plateaus are frequently covered, especially in South Island, where the highest peaks in the central and southern coast ranges are perpetually covered with snow, and glaciers in their greatest magnificence are always to be found.

Owing to the difference in latitude, and more especially to its greater elevation, South Island is considerably colder than North Island, averaging at least 6° less throughout the entire year, while the winter is much more severe. The winter in North Island has a mean temperature of more than 50° Fah., which is 10° higher than that in England, whilst that of South Island is lower than that of England, except in the low plains.

The rainfall is heavier, and there are a greater number of rainy days than in England, the atmosphere being very moist. The largest portion of this rain falls during the winter months, but slight showers are frequent throughout the whole of the year.

Violent winds are prevalent in the early part of the summer, and land and sea

breezes occur throughout the year.

The climate may be summarised as being pleasant and salubrious, very suitable to emigrants from the British Islands, and it is generally regarded as standing first amongst British colonies in this respect.

Minerals.—Although the mineral wealth of these islands has yet been but incompletely investigated, they have been shown to possess in considerable quantities most of the valuable minerals, besides many of less importance. The rocks belong to nearly every geological period, and include abundance of granite, slate, and sandstone, together with several other varieties valuable for building purposes. The most important of the minerals are gold, copper, iron, manganese, lead, coal, bismuth, arsenic, and alum. These have already been found to be widely distributed, and further investigation will probably discover an increase both in quantity and variety.

Gold was first discovered at Otago in 1851, and in 1860 in the northern portion of South Island. It has since been found in less quantities in the north-west of North

Island and throughout the eastern portion of South Island.

Iron-ore, in the form of iron-sand, is found in large quantities in the districts around

Mount Egmont.

Coal is widely distributed in both islands, being generally found near the western coasts. It is already worked profitably in North Island, near the Bay of Islands.

Copper is also widely distributed. The Southern Alps are chiefly composed of granite.

Vegetation.—These islands are amongst the most fertile portions of the globe. Large forests, containing almost every kind of wood essential for house or ship-building extend over immense tracts of the country, frequently covering the summits of the hills. In South Island, on the slopes of the highest mountains, these grow to the line of perpetual snow; and it is not unusual to find forests of the tree fern bounded only by the glaciers, their height averaging more than 40 feet. The moist and salubrious nature of the climate keeps the turf and leaves clad with the gayest verdure, presenting at all periods of the year a picturesque and magnificent sight.

The forests contain, amongst other valuable indigenous woods, the white pine (kahikatea), yellow pine (kauri), red pine (rimu) iron wood (puriri), black birch, and rala. In addition to these, the northern portion of North Island contains several varieties of palms, but these are not found in the districts further south, on account of the increased cold. The Kauri pine is notorious for its great elasticity and lightness, which render it extremely valuable for shipbuilding purposes. In addition to this, the resin contained is extracted and exported in large quantities as Kauri gum. The iron wood is famous for its hardness and durability, and with the black birch and rata, somewhat similar woods, is greatly used for house and shipbuilding. Another extremely valuable production is the native flax (phormium tenax), which possesses fibres of great strength. The natives use it largely in the manufacture of matting, and it is also exported to be used in the construction of rope, the British islands taking a large proportion.

New Zealand is deficient in its supply of indigenous grains, fruits, and edible roots, although it stands favourably in comparison with the Australian colonies. No grains whatever grow in a native state, and the few fruits are of little value. The ferns have large roots, and these parts of several species are frequently used for native food, as well as another root called the taro. These, with a species of sweet potato, form, however, the

sole representatives of edible roots in the islands.

Zoology.—The animals of New Zealand are very few, either with regard to individuals or species. The largest animal on the island is the hog, which was introduced at an early period, and now is found in a wild state, whilst the dog is the only representative of the carnivorous family. These, with the exception of a few rats and mice, are all the land animals. The birds are but little more numerous, only a few of the species being songsters. No snakes or noxious reptiles of any kind are found. There are a few lizards, but they are perfectly harmless. The only kind of animal life found in abundance is fish. These are plentiful in the rivers and lakes, the eel being probably the most numerous. Off the coast the whale and seal are found.

The almost entire absence of animals and birds causes the air to be remarkably still. No sound is heard either on the hills or in the valleys, but everywhere silence apparently reigns supreme, thus contrasting strongly with countries of similar latitude in

the northern hemisphere.

Inhabitants.—The aborigines of New Zealand are of an entirely different race from those of Australia, being members of the Malayan family, who inhabit the whole of the islands (to a greater or less extent) in Malaysia and Polynesia.

Their features differ but little from those of Europeans, the chief characteristics being that the top of the head is a little narrower, and the upper lip slightly protruded. Their

colour varies from a light copper colour to that of a dark brown. Their hail is black, glossy, and curly, and their nose straight and rather thick at the point. Their bodies are well built, and they are both tall and muscular. Not only superior in body, their moral and social condition is better than that of any other savage race. They possess none of the degrading habits of the Papuan Negro, but closely approach those of civilised nations. They are bold and warlike, and have been engaged in many scenes of deadly warfare against the British settler. Very intelligent, it has been little trouble for them to pick up the leading features of civilized life, and they are skilled practitioners of agriculture and cattle rearing. No savage nation can compare with them regarding the practise of noble qualities, as they stand first for hospitality, generous and frank behaviour, and a sensitive regard of their honour, but unfortunately their vices are equally prominent, as they are easily roused into passionate displays, and conduct themselves with the greatest ferocity and revengefulness.

When they were first discovered, the custom of cannibalism was extensively practised. In later years a pretence at Christianity has been made, but the great majority retain

as far as possible their original habits and customs.

In 1839 their number was estimated at 100,000. Since that period their decline has been rapid, and the estimates in 1877 only allow 43,000, of which the larger portion are found in the North Island.

The colonists are almost entirely composed of emigrants from the British Islands or their descendants. These, of course, retain the habits and customs of England. The white population in 1877 was estimated at 390,000.

Occupation.—Agriculture and sheep-rearing are at present the chief objects of

industry, although mining is increasing in importance.

The most suitable districts for cultivation are in North Island and in the southern part of South Island, where the soil is admirably adapted to the growth of wheat, barley, oats, maize, turnips, potatoes, and other vegetables, all of which are cultivated. Many European fruits are also grown, the grape attaining great perfection.

The whole of the eastern side of South Island and the southern part of North Island is covered with fine pasture, which renders it well suited for the sheep-rearing so largely

carried on in those parts.

Both branches of industry are greatly aided by the complete freedom from drought enjoyed by the island.

Commerce.—Like all countries in a youthful state, the commercial relations of New Zealand are confined to the export of raw produce and the import of manufactured goods. The value of the export trade in 1877 was £6,973,418, comprising gold, wool, provisions, wheat, vegetables, preserved meat, timber, Kauri gum, flax, copper, and the produce of the whale fishery; while the value of the imports amounted to £6,327,472 chiefly consisting of manufactured goods, tea, coffee, sugar, ale, and spirits.

Considering the time the colony has been established, the means of communication are in a very satisfactory condition, South Island being superior in this respect to North Island. Good roads have been constructed, and the railway has been introduced. The

rivers of the colony are also extremely valuable for this purpose.

Divisions.—Formerly the islands were divided into provinces. North Island contained the provinces of Auckland, Taranaki, Wellington, and Hawke Bay; South Island those of Marlborough, Nelson, Canterbury, Westland, and Otago. An Act was passed in 1875, however, which abolished these provinces, and established in their place a system of counties.

Towns.—Wellington (20,000), on Port Nicholson, is the capital of the colony. It is well built and contains the government buildings and other public works, and is the chief seaport. Napier, New Plymouth, and Auckland are important ports in North Island; smaller towns are Waikanai, Carlisle, Raleigh, and Woodville.

The largest town in South Island is Dunedin (18,000), which is also the most important seaport. *Invercargill, Hokitika, Havelock, Picton*, and *Lyttleton* are other growing ports, whilst *Christchurch* and *Blenheim* were formerly the capitals of provinces.

Government.—The Government of New Zealand, as at present established, is modelled after the English Constitution. The Governor is at the head of affairs, receiving his appointment from the Crown. He is aided in his executive powers by a Ministry selected from the legislative assemblies. These assemblies consist of two Houses—a Council of 43 members appointed for life by the Crown, and a Representative House of 88 members elected by the inhabitants, four of them being Maories, and elected by the natives.

The revenue in 1877 amounted to £3,916,023, and the expenditure to £3,822,426. At the end of the same year the colony had contracted a public debt of £20,691,111, chiefly caused by the frequent disturbances in North Island, and by the construction of

public works.

Education is carefully encouraged and supported by the Government, who not only aid the establishment of elementary schools, but assist greatly the appointment of secondary schools and others after the model of the English public schools. For religious purposes the whole colony forms the dioceses of New Zealand, Wellington, Napier, Nelson, and Christchurch.

History.—The islands were first discovered by Tasman in 1640, who partially explored them. During the eighteenth century they were visited on several occasions, Captain Cook visiting them in 1777. The first European settlers landed in 1814, but no English settlement can be said to have been established earlier than 1839. A Treaty was made with the Maori Chiefs in 1840, by which the sovereignty of the British was acknowledged, but allowing the chiefs to retain their lands and forests as long as they desired. A clause provided for the Crown the right of pre-emption. In 1841 the colony was formed into a separate Crown colony, and in 1852 received a representative form of government. Gold was discovered in 1851 in Otago, and in Nelson in 1860. The annual export of gold is over £2,000,000. The only drawback that has been experienced by the colonists are the frequent outbreaks of the natives, who, being brave and warlike, render the wars deadly and costly. For several years past there has been no outbreak, and it is hoped they have altogether ceased.

CHATHAM ISLANDS are a group of three islands lying in the Pacific Ocean, about 350 miles east of Cook's Strait in latitude 44° 25′ south, and longitude 170° west. The surface is diversified and covered with verdure. When discovered in 1791 they were inhabited by a small native population, but these have latterly become extinct. The islands are occasionally visited by whalers.

Auckland Islands consist of a small group of islands situated in latitude 50° 52′ south, and longitude 166° east, or about 180 miles south of New Zealand. The surface is mountainous and the appearance very picturesque. The highest land is about 1,400 feet above the sea. The soil is fertile, and the whole of the islands are covered with forests containing large and magnificent timber trees. The islands were first discovered in 1806, when they were entirely unoccupied. A settlement was established in 1849 for the purpose of engaging in the whale trade, but the speculation proving a failure it was discarded and the island abandoned.

Antipodes.—This is a small island that receives its name from being the land most nearly opposite to the British Islands, in the southern hemisphere. Its latitude is 49° 30′ south, and its longitude 178° 30′ east. It is of no value as a colonial possession.

Campbell Island, latitude 52° 16′ south, longitude 169° 7′ east; Emerald Island, latitude 57° south, longitude 163″ 2′ east; and Macquarie Island—are all situated south of the Auckland Islands. They are uninhabited, and only occasionally visited by the whaling vessels fishing in their neighbourhood.

Kerguelan is a small island in the Southern Ocean in latitude 50° south and longitude 70° east. It was named Desolation Island by Captain Cook because of its wild and inhospitable appearance. It is uninhabited.

St. Paul's Island and Amsterdam Island lie in the tract of vessels sailing between Australia and Cape Colony. Their coasts are high and precipitous. They are uninhabited.

## NORFOLK ISLAND.

Situation.—Norfolk Island is a small island situated in mid-ocean, in latitude 29° 3′ south, and longitude 167° 58′ east. It is more than 1,200 miles east-north-east of the town of Sydney, and more than 900 miles from the of the Australian coast.

General Features.—The whole of the surface does not exceed 13½ square miles in area, and is chiefly comprised of a low and level plain, with a few hills of little elevation. Mount Pitt, the highest peak, is less than 1,100 feet.

Numerous small streams water the soil, which is very fertile. Proportionally large portions are covered with forests, in which the most valuable trees found are the Norfolk

pine, iron wood, and white oak. Yellow and red ochre are also obtained.

The climate is hot, very closely resembling that of the lower ground in Queensland.

It is generally regarded as healthy.

Inhabitants.—It is at present the abode of the Pitcairn islanders, who were removed thither in 1855. Prior to that date the island was attached to Tasmania, and used as a punishment station for the worst criminals of that colony, then a penal settlement.

## FEEJEE ISLANDS.

Situation.—These are a group of about 220 islands, situated in the South Pacific Ocean, about 1,200 miles north of New Zealand and 2,000 east of Queensland, extending over 300 miles from west to east, and about 230 from north to south. They occupy the sea between the meridians of 175° east and 177° west longitude, and the parallels of 15° 45′ and 19° 10′ south latitude. About 80 are inhabited.

General Features.—The two largest islands in the group are Viti Levu (Great Feejee) and Vanua Levu (Great Land). The former is about 85 miles long and 40 miles wide, and the latter 95 miles long and 25 miles wide. The entire area of the group is about 8,034 square miles. All the islands are of volcanic origin, and contain many lofty mountains frequently covered with forests to their summits.

The climate is strictly tropical, but the heat is considerably modified by the

influence of the trade-winds.

The vegetation possesses all the luxuriance of the most favoured tropical land. The breadfruit, banana, plantain, cocoanut, and many esculent roots such as the taro and sweet potato abound. Sugar, orange, lemon, lime, citron, and cotton have been introduced with great success.

Inhabitants.—The natives, who number about 160,000, are members of the Austral-Negro family, and are the furthest east of any of that race. They have many degrading customs and were cannibals, but they are thought to be capable of adapting themselves to the civilised forms of life, so rare with savage nations. The white population numbers about 1,600, chiefly emigrants from Australia and New Zealand, although many European nations are represented in the motley group.

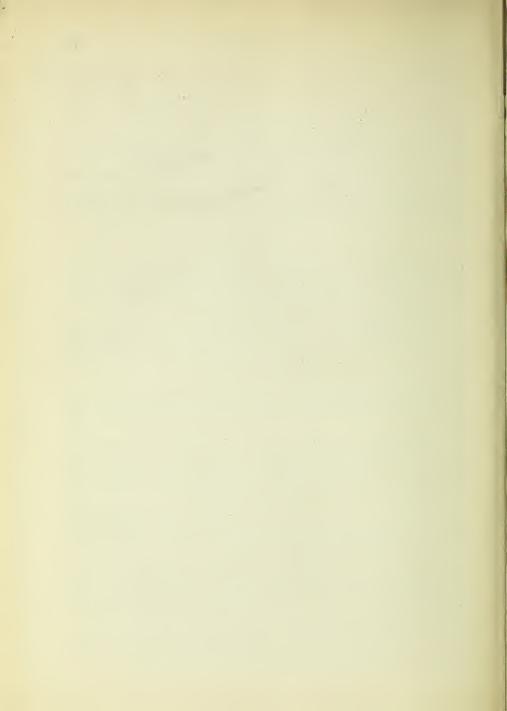
Commerce.—A considerable trade is conducted between these islands and those in the immediate neighbourhood, chiefly through the medium of the Australian settlers. The chief articles exported are cotton, pearl shells, maize, sugar, copra, cocoanut oil, and Bèche-de-mer. Their value in 1876 was about £107,000. The imports are chiefly manufactured goods, their value in 1876 being £138,000.

Towns.—The capital is Suva, a small town on the southern Coast of Viti Levu. Within recent years Levuka, on the island of Ovalan, has become an important seaport town.

Government, &c.—The islands form a Crown colony, the administration being in the hands of a Governor. Annual grants are made to aid the colony. The amount of this grant in 1876 was £35,000. The islands were accepted by the British at the offer of the Feejee chiefs in 1874.

Fanning Island, latitude 3° 30′ south, longitude 159° 13′ west; Maldon Island, latitude 4° 3′, south, longitude 154° 55′ west; and Starbruck, latitude 5° 32′ south, longitude 155° 35′ west—are all islands in Polynesia under the British rule. Their productions and

climate closely resemble those of the Feejee Islands.



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